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ABSTRACT

This three-part report covers a series of three workshops which were designed to provide an opportunity for practicing school counselors to improve present skills, to become familiar with new counseling strategies, and to increase proficiency in administering services they provide to their constituents. The first workshop focuses on individual counseling strategies while the second workshop emphasized the use of small groups in counseling, with particular attention to vocational educational materials and programs. The emphasis of the third workshop was upon the use of administrative and supervisory strategies in counseling and guidance, stressing systematic approaches to accountability and evaluation. Procedures employed included large group lectures, audio-video presentations, panel-discussions, small group methodology, and role modeling techniques. (Author/LAA)

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volume 1

1st annual workshop symposium report

COUNSELOR EDUCATION--A COMPLEMENTARY APPROACH: INDIVIDUAL COUNSELING

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1971

PREFACE

The 1971 Counseling and Guidance Workshop at the University of Wisconsin, Madison was originated to provide an opportunity for practicing school counselors to improve present skills, to become familiar with new counseling strategies, and to increase proficiency in administering services they provide their constituents. To achieve this end a three year sequential workshop was designed. Each of three modules was developed to address a specific set of topics. The first module was focused upon individual counseling strategies. Module two will address itself to group counseling (Summer, 1972) while the third session (Summer, 1973) will deal with administrative counseling concerns. Plans for repeating all three modules, in sequential fashion, are presently being made. Since presentations are not dependent upon one-another students can enter during any module, attend three summer sessions sequentially, and be completely "in phase."

The first paper presented in this text provides the rationale, historical antecedents, procedures, and goals of the program mentioned above. The succeeding papers constitute the six major addresses presented at the workshop. The totality of events that occurred at the workshop are summarized in the Appendix. In all, twelve demonstrations were presented. Topics covered included the "counselor and the curriculum"; communication theory as it applies to individual counseling; "Innovative counseling strategies"; the counselor, drugs, and drug abuse; behavioral procedures and techniques in counseling' "The Counselor and the Law"; evaluation of counseling services; and counselor accountability. Formal presentations and informal discussions were conducted by such educational leaders as John W.M. Rothney, Angelo V. Boy, Donald H. Blocher, Marshall P. Sanborn, Richard Dustin, Rickey George, and Thelma Daley. Planned and unplanned discussions between participants and presenters provided the opportunity for sharing views and experiences. The six major presentations were designed to provide the rationale and base for discussion. They provided the framework around which the rest of the workshop was built.

Procedures employed included large group lectures, audio-video presentations, panel-discussions, small group methodology, and role modeling techniques. Participants were encouraged to become actively involved. Interaction of individuals was viewed as the key to success of the workshop.

Participants response to both content and process of the workshop will provide a basis for the refinement of future sessions. Additionally, needs of practicing counselors will be continuously evaluated and incorporated into the program. Hopefully, this approach will provide counselor education with a means for ascertaining needs; a vehicle for meeting these needs; and the source for evaluating whether counselor education in Wisconsin is keeping pace with the practicing school counselors.

C. J. P.

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A MODEL FOR RETOOLING SCHOOL COUNSELORS

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It would appear the majority of counselor education programs devote most of their personnel and fiscal resources to the preparation of counselors. Once a counselor has completed his formal preparation he is expected to keep current through reading the journals and by attending and participating in one-or-two-day professional meetings.

The emphasis upon only preparing counselors would be justifiable if counselor education program resources were so limited that it was a question of either preparing counselors or providing practicing counselors with relevant post-degree educational opportunities. Because the number of counselor preparation programs has increased while, for a variety of reasons, the demand for counselors has leveled, counselor educators can concentrate more of their resources upon the practicing counselor.

Few counselors have had an opportunity to return to find out what they should or could be doing differently in response to the emphasis on counselor utilization of behavioral techniques, group procedured, and computer technology. The passage of the Vocational Education Act and the concommitment counselor responsibility for career development in the curriculum, along with the demise of N.D.E.A. Title VA and its emphasis on testing, further lessens the viability of existing counselor behavior and demands the development of new behaviors. Lastly, the counselor, as well as the counselor educator, can no longer ignore the threat, or is it promise, of the cry for ACCOUNTABILITY.

There is a need. Do we have the resources with which to respond? In Wisconsin, as in most other states, the number of counselor education programs in the last ten years has tripled. All the programs emphasize preparing counselors. The enrollment declines resulting from this proliferation of colleges preparing counselors is most noticeable in summer school. The effect was particularly noticeable when the course enrollments at the University of Wisconsin-Madison in 1969 were compared with enrollments in 1964. Class size by 1969 had decreased by two-thirds. In 1964, half the students were from out-of-state and in 1969 only one out-of-state student was enrolled, due largely, we like to believe, to tuition increases for out-of-staters and the increase in the number of out-of-state schools

offering counselor preparation programs.

The procedure and program described in this paper was largely born as a result of necessity. We believe we can demonstrate that this has not lessened the worth of the program. The purpose of this article is to share both our awakening and our response with counselor educators in other states in hope that at least one institution in each state might reconsider its mission.

General Program Description

Rationale

Professional skills and techniques in school counseling must continuously be evaluated and updated. This program, therefore, was designed to provide practicing counselors with the opportunity to improve present skills, to become familiar with more recent counseling strategies, and to increase proficiency in administering services they currently provide for their constituents. To accomplish these ends a three-year sequential summer sessions program was developed. Each of the three phases of this program was designed to examine a specific counseling topic or strategy. Counselors can enter the program during any summer session. However, they are encouraged to participate in three consecutive sessions so as to guarantee exposure to the three different topical areas presented.

Time Committment

In an attempt to maximize the chance of attracting school counselors this workshop was designed to be completed within a four-week block of time. Daily sessions began at 9:00 a.m. and terminated at 4:30 p.m.

Staff

The instructional staff consisted of three full-time University of Wisconsin counseling and guidance personnel plus the salary equivalent of one full-time visiting professor. The salary equivalency of the visiting professor was used to provide honorariums for eleven individuals that had evidenced proficiency in at least one of the diverse topics discussed.

Participant Eligibility

The workshop was designed for school counselors. Therefore, participation was limited to individuals holding valid counseling licenses in their state of residence employed at the elementary, middle school, secondary, or higher levels of education.

Application Procedures and Credit Earned

All applicants to this program were handled jointly by the counseling and guidance department and the summer sessions office. Interested students received applications and descriptive brochures from the summer sessions office and returned their completed forms to the counseling and guidance department. Admission criteria were checked. Students received notification of acceptance or rejection from the summer sessions office. This format provided the counseling and guidance department the vehicle for restricting participants to those individuals that met the eligibility requirements previously stated. Further, it provided both the University and the participants a means of going through regular channels thus facilitating material dissemination, record keeping, credit transfer, room assignments, and tuition payments.

Each participant in this program received six graduate credits. This block of credits was somewhat tempered by the fact that unless previously enrolled in the graduate school at the University of Wisconsin students could not apply credits earned toward degree programs without special Departmental permission to do so. However, courses completed did carry graduate credit and could be applicable toward degrees in other colleges and/or universities and were recognized by local school districts in awarding salary increases for credits earned.

Program Advantages

Numerous advantages accrue from this type of summer session. Practicing counselors (students), faculty, the University, and in this particular situation, the Department of Public Instruction, all benefitted from the program as presented.

For practicing counselors an opportunity was presented which enabled them to earn six graduate credits, in their field of speciality, in a relatively small block of time (4 weeks). The four-week session, as contrasted to the typical six- or eight-week summer programs, was especially beneficial to counselors that held 10½, 11, or 12-month counseling contracts. They were able to concentrate on an area of study and yet not be penalized for lost time in their home schools. Also, counselors were able to earn six credits toward an 18-hour credit block needed for professional life certification in the State of Wisconsin. For many this opportunity reduced the press which often occurs from working toward certification during the evenings of the regular school year. Finally, the format utilized in this program allowed counselors to be exposed to counseling theory and practices from many sources. Visiting professors shared points of view not necessarily exposed by Wisconsin faculty. Differences of opinion provided the stimulus for much thought and discussion. Other, non-professional lecturers, added discussions of practicality not often witnessed in graduate classes. A refreshing look at both old and new ideas was the end result.

The counseling and guidance faculty at the University of Wisconsin benefitted from this program. For participating faculty the advantage gained was partially in terms of the number of days committed to teaching a summer session. Although the teaching day was in fact longer, the number of days was less. For many this was preferrable. Because of the possible desirability of participating in such a program the staff is rotated over a three-year period with only the coordinator remaining as a fixed participant. A second benefit to the counseling and guidance staff can be seen in terms of departmental exposure. Counselors not able to attend longer summer sessions or unable to participate in regular classes during the school year did attend this program. Therefore, the counseling and guidance faculty had an occasion to expose practicing counselors to theoretical issues and practices they felt to be beneficial to counselors and counseling. Lastly, the counselor educators at the University of Wisconsin gained from working with professional colleagues from other universities. The sharing of ideas and biases provided an opportunity for the "education of the educated."

The University, like the counseling and guidance faculty, benefitted from exposure. Unique programs, when successful, enhance a university's reputation. Although it is early to make rash claims, evaluative feedback from the first workshop participants is decidedly positive.

Finally, the Wisconsin State Department of Public Instruction benefitted in the sense that one of their "charges," school counselors, had an additional means of earning credits toward professional life certification. The state benefits from such an occurrence to the degree that practitioners have more and/or better skills with which to do their jobs.

Workshop Focus

The need for a program of the present structure is discussed in the opening paragraphs of this manuscript. However, the originators of this program reasoned that the methodology for meeting these needs should not rest solely with counselor educators but that counselors must be systematically questioned as to what they deem as important. Therefore, in an attempt to ascertain felt needs of potential program participants a questionnaire was sent to 986 practicing school counselors in Wisconsin. 403 (40.8%) questionnaires were completed and returned. Of this number 305 persons showed an interest in attending a four-week summer workshop. 296 respondents indicated a preference for the first four weeks of the eight-week summer session whereas 70 individuals indicated a preference for the last four weeks. Due to the limited personnel resources, the first four weeks were selected.

From a curriculum perspective individuals were given the opportunity to indicate their first, second, and third choice of topical or instructional units to be offered in the program. Tabulation of their responses follows:

Curricular Choices--Ordered
According to Preference

Topics	Choices 1st	2nd	3rd	Total
Behavioral Modification Theory & Techniques	100	41	37	178
Group Counseling Processes	61	69	48	178
Problems of Drugs & Drug Abuse in Counseling	61	52	46	159
Vocational Development & Programs	45	45	39	129
Individual Counseling Processes	57	44	26	127
The Counselor and the Law	18	32	43	93
Human Relations Training for Counselors	22	33	30	85
The Counselor and the Curriculum	11	23	34	68
The Counselor as a Social Change Agent	10	21	29	60
Research Strategies for Practicing Counselors	6	15	16	37
Applications of Current Research to Counseling	7	8	20	35
Audio-Visual Aids Useful in Counseling	4	14	16	34
Male-Female Differences in Education	1	6	10	17
Other	3	2	2	7

The results of the questionnaire provided the basis for formulation of a three-year summer workshop program with each session being focused upon a specific segment of counseling theory and practice. Specific concentrations that were determined are as follows:

Summer Workshop 1971 (6 graduate credits)

To focus upon individual, innovative, and behavioristic strategies of counseling with attention paid to the counselor and the law, the counselor and the curriculum, and the counselor as he relates to drugs and drug abuse in the school situation.

Summer Workshop 1972 (6 graduate credits)

To focus upon group counseling processes with specific attention paid to counseling theory and techniques, vocational development theory and programs, applications of current research to counseling, the counselor as a social change agent, and human relations training for counselors.

Summer Workshop 1973 (6 graduate credits)

To focus upon administration and supervision of counseling and guidance programs, research strategies for practicing counselors, audio-visual aids applicable to counseling, and examination and utilization of testing programs in counseling.

Format--Summer Workshop 1971

The method of presentation utilized included lectures, small group discussions, participant presentations, counseling demonstrations, role playing, panel discussions, and video taping techniques.

While it was necessary to present a certain body of knowledge through key lectures a concentrated effort was made to minimally use the didactic approach and to emphasize group interactivity. To facilitate this activity staff members, including visiting professors, rotated among student subgroups thereby availing students to the expertise of all staff personnel.

Typically presentations were made by visiting professors during the first half of the morning activities. These presentations were followed by panel discussions, small group activities, or counseling demonstrations. Afternoon sessions employed small groups and concentrated on the viability and/or methodology for applying presented materials in counseling situations. The format of presenting theory followed by means for implementation in practice was followed throughout the four week workshop.

Evaluation of Workshop 1971: By Participants

Before termination of the workshop each participant was asked to respond to an evaluation questionnaire. Names were omitted. Excerpts from this survey follow:

(1) Do you plan to attend next summer's workshop? <u>If no, why? If yes, why</u>?

Of the 44 participating counselors 40 responded to the questionnaire. Of these, 34 indicated that they would return, 3 indicated that they would not while 3 others were uncertain.

Sample Student Statements:

"...this workshop has been of more value to me than my entire graduate program!"

"I want to keep current with the changes of a viable, dynamic profession and feel the need for updating my background in group guidance."

"It was a practical and good experience. I have gained many things that I will apply to my school situation."

(2) Are there any instructors who should be invited for next summer? Why? Are there any books or <u>other</u> <u>materials</u> that should be included?

Answers to this question covered a relatively wide range. Each will be considered in preparing workshop number two.

(3) Evaluation of present workshop.

a) Format:
Which parts of the format were conducive to learning? Were large groups beneficial? Were small groups beneficial? In what ways might the format be improved?

Sample Student Statements:

"The format was good, the four weeks was great!"

"The format was excellent. I would have enjoyed, however, more varied kinds of student participation."

"I found all parts conducive to learning. Small groups were more conducive to interchange of ideas."

b) Material:
Were any new ideas presented? Were ideas presented relevant to the practitioner? That is, how useful was it to you for your own situation?

Sample Student Statements:

"I obtained several new ideas which I plan to implement in my school situation."

"...new light shed on some old ideas--also, some practical ideas..."

"It has served me well, I have things I'll try to do this fall."

"The wealth of material gathered was immeasurable. The job of translating it into a workable plan at my high school is my behavioral contract for the year."

c) Outside Experts:
How might presentations have been improved? Were there too many? Too few? Should they have been present as long as they were?

Student response to this question has provided valuable data for changing certain aspects of the next summer workshop.

(4) Can you identify for yourself any tangible outcomes of the workshop? Were outcomes what you anticipated they might be?

Sample Student Statements:

"Immediate reevaluations of our present counseling organization. Initiation of more individual and group counseling. Less emphasis to be placed on testing and more effective use of cumulative records."

"The workshop made me aware of the necessity of setting personal goals as well as specific goals for individual situatons. Also, I now see a need to keep up my professional reading so as to keep abreast of counseling trends and a need to develop and improve techniques and skills in my own style of counseling."

"It made me feel that there is a need for more counseling and less guidance."

(5) What differences will attendance at the workshop make in your work next year? (Differences may, of course, include the feeling that you have more support for what you have been doing.) This is the important question so please elaborate at as much length as you want.

Sample Student Statements:

"Having not been to school for about five years getting the new thoughts and ideas was educational as well as motivational."

"The workshop has given me a chance to develop three goals, methods to carry them out, and evaluative procedures to use."

"I don't think I will be as hesitant to make changes or experiment with new ideas. I will have a lot more to say to support our program. I will attempt to better define my goals in the school and know that I am now less reluctant to try new counseling approaches."

(6) Are there any additional comments or criticism that you would like to make which are not covered by questions one through five?

Sample Student Statements:

"I think it would be good to cover more practical concerns."

"Increase our group involvement next year."

"This first summer has been a good start. I would anticipate increased enrollment next year as the word is spread about the productivity of this first summer."

Examination of evaluation responses showed some comments to be positive, some to be negative, but typically, all to be constructive. Participants apparently appreciated the approach used and were willing to make suggestions for its further refinement. Based upon participant responses and the impressions of the teaching staff certain key changes are being planned for the 1972 summer workshop. To a large degree these changes revolve around a desire to have greater participation by counselors, to decrease the number of days "outside experts" present, to increase the stimulus input by University of Wisconsin counseling and guidance departmental staff, and to place greater emphasis on methodology for

making the transition from theory to practice. Examination of the format for summer workshop 1972 reveals how we hope to accomplish these ends.

Format--Summer Workshop, 1972

Week #1

June 12 — Introduction to workshop, overview of procedures to be used, objectives of experience, means of short-and long-term evaluation to be specified.

Staff.

June 13 — "Selected Images for the Future: In Larger Society and in Youth Culture with Implications for Educational Institutions"

Visiting Lecturer #1

June 14 — "Implications of Images for Future of Counseling and Guidance Within Schools"

Visiting Lecturer #2

June 15 — "Applications of Group Dynamics for Planned Change Within Schools"

Visiting Lecturer #3

June 16 — Development of Groups to Set Individual and Group Priorities and Objectives.

Week #2

June 19 — "Application of Counseling Theory to Vocational Development"

Staff

June 20, 21, 22 — Small group process to be used to arrive at objectives and procedures for implementation of group procedures in development of student vocational growth. Evaluation procedures to be aimed at examination of methodology developed.

June 23 — Intergroup discussions.

Week #3

June 26 — "Necessity and Methodology for Understanding Personal and Interpersonal Relationships--Including Attitudes, Interests, etc."

Staff

June 27, 28, 29 — Small group process to be used to develop methodology for examining the "charge" of the week. Evaluation procedures to be developed to examine both product and process of group's functioning.

June 30 — Intergroup Discussions

Week #4

July 3 — Discussion of "Natural Groups" which exist in educational institutions and means for counselors to use group procedures in working effectively with these groups.

Staff

July 4 — No classes - legal holiday

July 5 — "Group Approaches to the Counselor as an Agent of Change"

Visiting Lecturer #4

July 6 — Small group process--development of methodology to investigate means of implementing group "agent of change" theory in educational institutions.

Use Visiting Lecturer #4 as group leader in alternate groups.

July 7 — Summary--Conclusions for Workshop. Workshop evaluation by students. Discussion of longitudinal procedures to be followed.

Format

A. On Days of Major Presentations

9:00 - 10:30	Large group presentation (Staff & Consultant)
10:30 - 10:45	Break
10:45 - 12:00	Panel discussion with Staff and Consultant to focus upon implications of presentation for counselors
12:00 - 1:00	Lunch
1:00 - 2:30	Major presentation
2:30 - 2:45	Break
2:45 - 4:30	Discussion period. Implications of theory for practice--shared input by presenter and students.

B. On Group Meeting Days

9:00 - 10:30	*Group presentation #1
10:30 - 10:45	Break
10:45 - 12:00	*Group presentation #2
12:00 - 1:00	Lunch
1:00 - 2:30	*Group presentation #3
2:30 - 2:45	Break
2:45 - 4:30	*Group presentation #4

*Group presentations will include the development of the group approach for solution or examination of the "charge" for the week. Students will be expected to adapt known methodology or to develop new procedures. An opportunity to receive immediate feedback from group participants is intrinsic in this approach. A discussion period is incorporated into each 1½ hour module.

C. On Intergroup Meeting Days

Sharing of ideas, techniques, methods of approach and attitude to be discussed across groups.

The Future

It is envisioned that as circumstances permit the summer experience will extend into the school year. One plan has been to establish a practitioner-university exchange program whereby school counselors would gather in convenient locations for varying time periods to examine and develop their programs with the advice and consultation of faculty and peers while their "positions" are being staffed by university faculty and graduate students. In essence this would allow the summer program to serve as a staging ground followed by planned check-points through the year.

Before the three-summer sequence is repeated it will be preceded by a new survey of school counselor priorities. This will allow the faculty to keep the program in line with the need as expressed by the counselors-in-the-field. Knowing the practicing counselors' concerns also better ensures that the on-going preparation program maintains an appropriate focus.

This program has had a further advantage in that by becoming a model for other Departments in the School of Education and because it has been recommended by the Summer Sessions Dean as the future model for summer school graduate programs, the Department is now viewed as a leader in its own institution which has both esteem and budgetary benefits. All in all, it has been a rewarding experience and it is our hope that other counselor education programs would have a similar experience.

A SYSTEMATIC ECLECTIC MODEL FOR COUNSELING

Donald H. Blocher
University of Minnesota

A casual glance at contemporary counseling psychology will convince the observer that we wear a coat of many colors. Practicing counselors are steadily bombarded with books, workshops, conferences and lectures based upon the almost incredible array of competing approaches that pervades the field. Rational emotive therapy, gestalt therapy, reality therapy, logotherapy, daseinanalyses, encounter, groups, T groups, human potential groups, transactional groups, human relations training, effectiveness training, communications training, behavior modification, desensitization, contingency management, and aversive conditioning, all descend around the counselor's head in a veritable barrage. The average counselor is hard put to decide whether they represent the out-pourings of Santa Claus' bag or Pandora's Box.

Compared to the complexities of today's conflicting and competing approaches, the venerable directive-non-directive argument that absorbed too much energy and attention in years past now seems like a positively nostalgic example of the lost innocence of our professional childhood. While we continue to lack consensual as well as empirical validation for most of our professional practices, at least we can luxuriate in a veritable embarrassment of theoretical riches. Unfortunately, too often competing theories seem to yield varying and often contradictory directions for both research and practice. Although a considerable body of outcome research does exist, knowledge claims based upon these data often tend to take the form of sweeping overgeneralizations that make the proponents of a particular approach appear more like true believing disciples of some ancient prophet than like devotees of disciplined inquiry.

Research efforts in recent years have tended to focus upon counseling process variables derived from broad theoretical positions in efforts to achieve some kind of rapprochement between competing positions. The Client-centered group, particularly in the lines of research pioneered by Truax and Carkhuff (1967) have sought to demonstrate the relationship between a variety of therapeutic outcomes and process variables labelled "accurate empathy," "warmth," "congruence" and "unconditional positive regard." In effect, they have been searching for a set of common process elements that might cut across situational

and theoretical differences and explain therapeutic outcomes in a general way. Whiteley, Mosher and Sprinthall (1966) have also initiated a line of process research organized around concepts derived from the work of Rokeach (1960). Their construct is labelled cognitive flexibility and attempts to embrace the kinds of cognitive sets with which counselors approach clients.

Bergin (1966) has speculated that variability in results of counseling and psycho-therapeutic outcomes may be explained by differences in levels of therapeutic conditions. In other words counseling and therapy may harm some clients and help others giving the well-known research finding of greater variability in treatment groups as compared to control groups even when mean differences are not significant.

Strupp and Bergin (1969) in a virtually monumental review of the counseling and therapeutic research literature were unable to find support for statements claiming the superiority of particular theoretical approaches across client groups or outcome categories. Similarly they were unable to find support for the existence of any necessary and sufficient process condition or common element for therapeutic improvement across client and problem variables.

They conclude that at the present time comparisons across theories independent of problem or client characteristics are less than useful. Rather, they maintain that specific theoretical frameworks tend to be associated with successful results on specific outcome criteria with specific client populations. Another way of saying this is that we now recognize that it is naive to ask, "Which theory of counseling is best?", or what process variable is necessary and sufficient? Instead the important questions that are beginning to emerge involve issues of which counseling interventions or treatments in the hands of which counselors yield which results with which clients under what conditions.

These are obviously much more complex questions with which to deal. They tend to point toward a posture or approach to practice and research that I choose to label "systematic eclecticism." This brand of eclecticism is, I believe, now in the process of coming into full respectability. It is not merely a return to the kind of relatively mindless eclecticism or counsel by the "seat of your pants" approach that was so prevalent twenty years ago. The added infusion represented in the term systematic is crucial. This approach, which Warren Shaffer and I have recently elaborated more fully elsewhere, (Cook, 1971) represents an attempt to utilize concepts from general systems theory to build self-renewing, empirically validated approaches. These involve developing alternative interventions, and decision rules for choosing among them, based upon knowledge from the research literature continuously validated and modified by new empirical evidence.

Our model is as yet tentative and incomplete. The hope that is contained in the approach is that a general process statement in systems or flowchart terms can be made that is general enough to cover all kinds of behavior change situations from teaching and supervision to counseling and psychotherapy. Within this very general statement, process variables can be defined that will provide "loadings" for particular stages of treatment that will be appropriate in terms of client differences that we label "life stage", "life style" and "life space" variables and also in terms of differing presenting problems and counselor goals.

The approach to outcome research inherent in this systematic eclectic model is similar to that suggested by Thoresen (1970). He points out that the traditional research designs involving comparison between counseled groups and no treatment controls with evaluation confined to a very few outcome criteria have not been particularly fruitful. The very carefully accomplished studies by Volsky (1965) are testimony to this position. Instead Thoresen suggests the model of the intensive case study as a research strategy more nearly attuned to the complexities represented in counseling outcome research. This model has been used widely and with powerful effect in the area of pharmacology.

In order for an eclectic stance to have real payoff in organizing present knowledge for both optimal professional practice and relevant future research we must have some kind of systematic conceptual framework within which to operate. That framework however does not have to be on the same order as those represented in traditional counseling or personality theories. A systematic eclectic framework must deal with three basic sources of variability directly inherent in the counseling situation rather than with those variables more broadly relevant to some expansive world view.

Basically the counseling situation represents an attempt of one human being to offer help or assistance to another human being within the framework of a professional relationship. Normally that help involves assistance to the counselee in learning new attitudes, understandings or instrumental behaviors relevant to himself and his interactions with his environment. Typically this assistance involves a medium of talk or conversation about factors relevant to the counselee's learning.

We can identify directly in this situation three related, but relatively discrete sets of variables. It is these variables that must be dealt with systematically if an eclectic approach is to offer more than simple trial and error or pure expediency as its basis of operation.

Input Variables

The first of these sets of variables we can term inputs. These obviously include the counselee, the counselor, and the contextual basis of their initial encounter. This context includes essentially the presenting expectations and concerns of the counselee and the institutional role and professional expertise of the counselor, as well as the total social and physical setting in which they meet.

If we assume that for a given practitioner operating in a particular institutional setting, with a given level of training or expertise, many of these important counselor and contextual factors are from a practical point of view relative constants. Their interaction effects obviously vary in terms of differences in counselee characteristics. A systematic eclectic approach then cannot ignore the factors represented by counselor and contextual factors, but it must be concerned most directly with counselee differences.

Intervention Variables

The second set of variables which must be handled in a systematic eclectic approach represent process variables or what may be termed intervention variables. Here fortunately the literature provides a rich resource, but in many cases the most significant outcome studies do not provide adequate descriptions of intervention processes, so that replication of successful treatments tends to remain difficult. Several fairly well defined and elaborated intervention models have accumulated evidence of effectiveness in specific situational and population contexts, however. The Truax and Carkhuff line of research on therapeutic relationship conditions (1967) the Krumboltz-Thoresen behavioral models using both operant reinforcement and social learning techniques, (1969) the rational-emotive therapy model of Ellis (1962), the systematic desensitization technique pioneered by Wolpe (1969) and the work of Williamson and the Minnesota group (Campbell, 1963) are all examples of fairly well-established intervention models with substantial evidence of effectiveness in given situations with given populations.

No systematic eclectic approach has heretofore existed, however, within which treatment choices could be made on more than an intuitive basis across client groups and within outcome categories.

Outcome Variables

The final crucial set of variables with which a systematic eclectic model must deal is, of course, the outcome variables. As Fiske, et. al. (1970) pointed out in their recent appraisal of essential ingredients in psychotherapy effectiveness research, increasing need is

being recognized for the individualization of outcome criteria. Probably the most grievous sin represented in the whole literature of counseling and psychotherapy has been the persistent tendency to overgeneralize claims based on success with one population and one outcome category to all clients with all treatment goals.

At this point then it becomes clear that the advantage that a systematic eclectic approach has at the present state of knowledge is that it allows both the practitioner and the researcher to ask the most relevant questions. The practitioner can utilize such an approach to determine treatment of choice for given clients with given goals. He is no longer limited to a single approach to utilize with all clients in much the same way that the medical corpsman prescribes aspirin. Similarly, the researcher will be able to utilize the systematic eclectic model to ask the really important questions of which treatment with which clients yields which outcomes under what conditions.

Building the Model

We have looked briefly at the need for, and requirements of, a useful systematic eclectic model for counseling. It is possible now to construct at least a prototype of such a model. Basically the prototype deals with client input variables under the three rubrics mentioned above, life stage, life style, and life space. These three subsets allow the system to handle the full range of age, sex, socio-economic, educational and environmental resource factors presently recognized as important to learning processes.

The prototype similarly categorizes three sets of process or intervention variables as sources of gain: relationship processes, cognitive processes and behavioral or reinforcement processes. It is possible within this approach to categorize and apply several treatment processes which have demonstrated effectiveness as well as others which hold promise of potential effectiveness.

At this point, the prototype is able to handle several types of presenting problems or behavior patterns, specify a treatment of choice and an outcome criterion for evaluation purposes. (See Figure 1). Obviously in practice most interventions would be cyclical or mixed since the kind of client assessment process based upon life stage, life style and life space variables would seldom yield a "pure" or unmixed presenting pattern. Similarly, as the case contact developed it is likely that in many situations the presenting pattern would be amplified or broadened to include additional or alternative elements which in turn would lead to a sequence of additional intervention choices.

The full operational capability of the model would be the design of highly individualized treatment packages with varying leadings of relationship, cognitive and behavioral process elements, attuned to specific clusters of outcomes for particular clients or groups of clients.

Figure 1

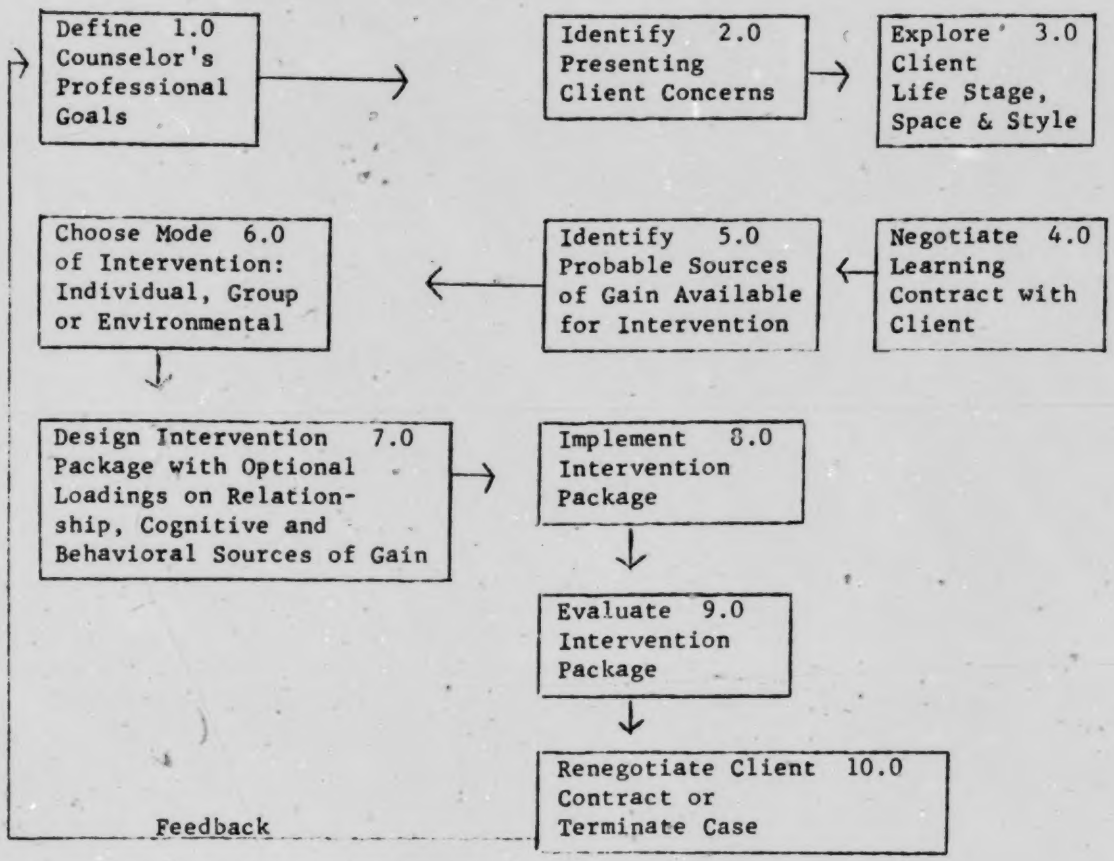
An Eclectic Model
for Intervention Development

Presenting Behavior Pattern	Source of Gain Employed	Outcomes Desired
Statements other behavior indicating: Low self esteem, high non-focal anxiety, high general hostility	Relationship; Warmth, empathy positive regard (Rogerian Model)	Increased self esteem, reduction of hostility, reduced general anxiety
Defective personal construct system-faculty means-and relationship	Cognitive teaching, information-giving, interpretation of behavior analytic, rational-emotive	Increased self awareness "insight", better personal construct
High Focal anxiety	Behavioral: desensitization (Wolpe)	More appropriate level of emotional response to environmental cues
Undesirable behavior-lack of appropriate behaviors	Behavioral: Operant shaping social modeling (Krumboltz Thoresen)	More appropriate social, instrumental behavior
Lack of appropriate Information about Self and/or Environment	Cognitive: educational and vocational information, understanding of interests and aptitudes	More appropriate choice and planning behavior.

A second stage of prototype development is now completed which allows a tentative statement about the process of treatment integration and articulation. Briefly this model conceptualizes a sequence of activities that begins with definition of counselor goals, identification of presenting concerns, description of client characteristics, negotiation of specific client behavioral contract, identification of probable sources of gain in potential treatments, choice of mode of treatment and design of intervention package. This process is shown in the flow chart in Figure 2.

Figure 2

A Systematic Eclectic Model
of Intervention Design


Define 1.0 Counselor's Professional Goals
Identify 2.0 Presenting Client Concerns
Explore 3.0 Client Life Stage, Space & Style
Negotiate 4.0 Learning Contract with Client
Identify 5.0 Probable Sources of Gain Available for Intervention
Choose Mode 6.0 of Intervention: Individual, Group or Environmental
Design Intervention 7.0 Package with Optional Loadings on Relationship, Cognitive and Behavioral Sources of Gain
Implement 8.0 Intervention Package
Evaluate 9.0 Intervention Package
Renegotiate Client 10.0 Contract or Terminate Case
Feedback

The type of systematic eclectic models described above seem to offer a wide range of opportunity for both improvement in professional practice and added knowledge about the field. They allow the counselor to function more nearly in the scientist practitioner role than do most of the existing models based solely upon particular theories of personality. They allow the counselor to modify and develop his approaches on the basis of his own values and the needs of his clients and so to function in a fully professional way with accountability to his clients, his employers and himself.

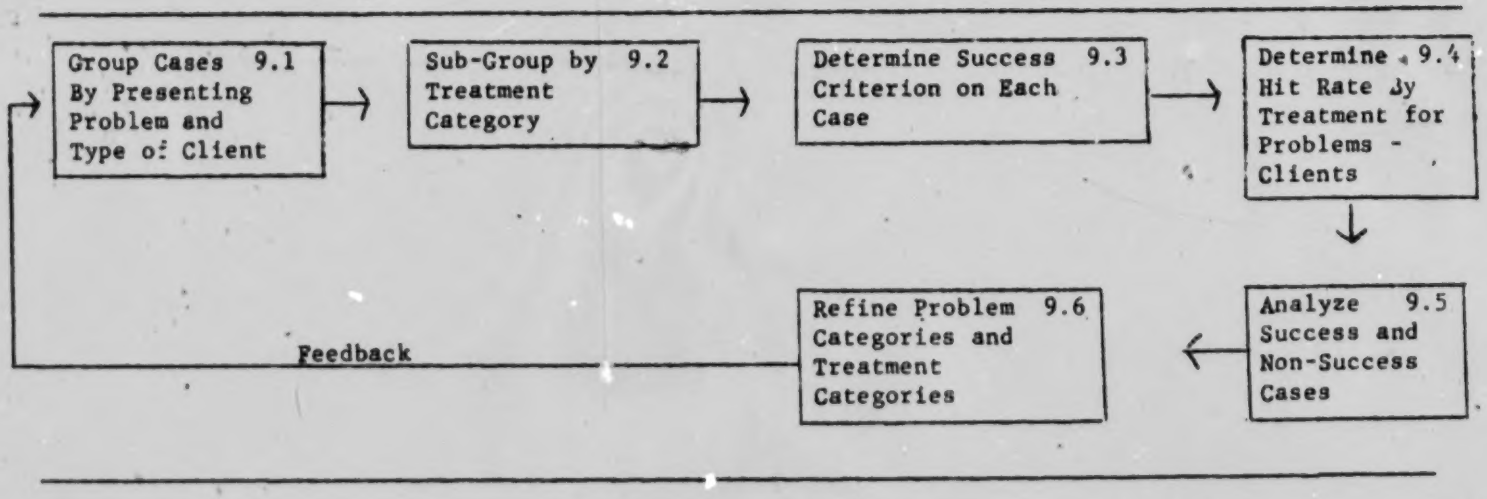
Several aspects of the model described in Figure 2 should be stressed. The first step involves the clear definition of the counselor's own general professional goals. An eclectic model can only be useful when it is used within the framework of a clearly identified set of professional and philosophical commitments. Similarly, the presenting needs and concerns of the client must be recognized. As the counselor and client explore together the latter's needs, aspirations and resources in terms of what we call life stage, life space and life style a mutual understanding of the specific goals toward which counselor and client will commit themselves should emerge. This mutual commitment is made explicit in what is called a learning contract in Box 4.0.

Once the learning contract is established the counselor examines the possible sources of gain available to help his client fulfill the specific goals. These sources of gain may involve relationship processes, new information about self or environment, desensitization to environmental stimuli; reinforcement of new responses by the counselor, significant others in the environment or the client himself etc. The counselor then chooses a mode of treatment; one to one counseling, group counseling, environmental intervention in family, school or peer group or some combination thereof. He then is able to deisgn and implement a treatment package built around the client's needs and assessable in terms of a clearly defined success criterion based upon the learning contract.

For research purposes the model allows the use of a systematic research pattern similar to that mentioned earlier based upon an intensive case study. This model is described in Figure 3 as a fuller breakdown of Box 9 in Figure 2.

Figure 3

Process and Outcome Evaluation


Group Cases 9.1 By Presenting Problem and Type of Client
Sub-Group by 9.2 Treatment Category
Determine Success 9.3 Criterion on Each Case
Determine 9.4 Hit Rate By Treatment for Problems - Clients
Analyze 9.5 Success and Non-Success Cases
Refine Problem 9.6 Categories and Treatment Categories
Feedback

This research model allows the researcher and/or practitioner to establish success ratios for given treatment packages for specific presenting problems by particular client types. This information is precisely the kind needed to advance the field as an applied science and needed by each professional to improve his own professional practice. It allows the development and testing of sophisticated treatment packages for dissemination and also allows the individual counselor to compare directly the effectiveness of a given treatment in his own hands with the success rate claimed for the treatment.

Clearly the development of the kind of systematic eclectic approach described here is still in an embryonic stage. As more and more powerful and comprehensive prototypes are developed, the full potential in the model can be appreciated.

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STRATEGIES FOR THE INDIVIDUAL COUNSELING PROCESS*

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Introduction

Reading a research study which indicates the effectiveness of a particular theory of counseling is much like just reading the last chapter of a book without having read the preceding chapters. Access to these preceding chapters would certainly enable me to make more sense out of the last chapter.

These preceding chapters are similar to the strategies of counseling in that they are necessary and enable the last chapter, the counseling relationship, to make sense and be effective. A theory of counseling becomes viable only when it is accompanied by a particular set of non-counseling strategies which enable that theory to be applied. A theory of counseling becomes functional for clients only when the counselor expends energy in developing and sharpening these strategies. These strategies give life to the counseling relationship; they enable the counseling relationship to materialize and be behaviorally relevant to the client.

The purpose of this paper is to identify certain non-counseling strategies which can prompt any theory of counseling to be better applied within the realities of a school setting. These strategies were identified and implemented during my nine years of experience as a full-time school counselor. I hope that they possess some meaning for you.

The First Strategy: The Counselor Must be Able to Translate Theory into Practice.

Various recommendations stress the need for adequately prepared school counselors. The American Personnel and Guidance Association has issued a policy statement to this effect;[1] the American School Counselor

*From: Angelo V. Boy and Gerald J. Pine, The Counselor in the Schools: A Reconceptualization, Chapter 12, Houghton Mifflin Company, Boston, 1968.

Association has developed a role description that emphasizes the professional functioning of the secondary school counselor[2] and, more recently, has published a statement covering the proper role of the elementary school counselor;[3] the Association for Counselor Education and Supervision has conceived standards in counselor preparation which are designed to produce a professionally knowledgeable school counselor;[4, 5] a committee of the Division of Counseling Psychology of the American Psychological Association has made recommendations that focus on counselor preparation;[6] and the American Commission on Guidance, under the leadership of C. Gilbert Wrenn, has produced The Counselor in a Changing World, which is an enlightened guidepost regarding the future of school counseling.[7]

Unfortunately, professional preparation is usually spelled out only in terms of proper course work and appropriate accompanying experiences. One dimension that has been overlooked in counselor education programs is the cumbersome task of translation; that is, the counselor's ability to translate the theoretical constructs of a counselor education program into the cold reality of a work situation. Touring the ivory towers of theory is fundamental for the counselor in the process of becoming, but theory must be operable in the marketplace of reality if it is to have any functional value. A significant counselor education program is one in which the student counselor has had the opportunity to investigate the procedure and process of translating theory into practice. A counselor education program cloistered in theory will tend to produce counselors who are not able to grapple with the problem of translating theory into reality. On the other hand, an overly practice-centered program could produce fine technicians who are versed in the mechanics of guidance rather than in the art of counseling.

A well-educated counselor, then, is one who has been able to translate theoretical constructs into practice, thus transcending the current abyss between counseling theory and reality-based operational procedures.

The Second Strategy: The Counseling Program Must be Based Upon a Substantive Rationale.

The United States government performs many functions aimed at the common good. The functions of the executive, legislative, and judicial branches of our government are aimed at meeting the needs of the populace. But these functions are not idle attempts to render assistance; they are, rather, based on a democratic rationale which considers the nature of man and his economic, social, educational, and self-preserving needs.

The degree of criticism leveled against a counseling program appears to be in proportion to the extent to which that program has a rationale underlying its visible functions. If a counseling program does certain things to and for its clientele, these artifacts of counseling should be defensible in terms of an underlying rationale. If they are not, perhaps the criticism is justifiable.

One cannot engage in the overt practices of a religion unless there is a substantive inner belief which is the core of that religion. By the same token, a counselor must have a rationale, a why, if his counseling functions are to have a meaning for his clientele and for himself.

The Third Strategy: A Counselor Must Possess a Professional Self-Identity Which Can Be Translated into Role Description.

The rationale for our Judeo-Christian tradition is contained in the Old and New Testaments. It is brought to fruition, perhaps, through the Ten Commandments, which serve as a workable "role description" for the practicing Jew or Christian.

Possessing a rationale for a counseling program would be the beginning point. A substantive rationale must be translated so that there is a relationship between it and the counselor's role. The counselor's role description should be a workable extension of basic concepts that have been derived from a counseling rationale.

For the counselor to form a bridge between his counseling rationale and a role description, there must be a certain evolvement centering around the counselor's acquisition of a self-identity or a knowledge of his professional essence in relation to his counseling rationale. Once the counselor has achieved this self-identification, his next logical task is to produce a concept of his role which is related to his self-identity but more basically related to his counseling rationale.

As the counselor evolves, then, he begins with a counseling rationale; from it develops a professional identity; and from this professional identity emerges a meaningful role concept that enables the counselor to perform his function with clarity. A counseling program of substance is one in which counselors have achieved a self-identity that has been translated into a professional role.

The Fourth Strategy: The Counselor Must Possess a Positive and Therapeutically Inclined Image Among his Clientele.

If the counselor's role revolves around quasi-administrative and authoritative functions, pupils will not perceive him as someone to whom they can easily relate. When the counselor becomes involved in such functions, he may satisfy the administration's need for assistance; but, certainly, students will have a negative perception of the counselor's role and function.

For pupils to relate comfortably to a counselor, they must perceive him as someone with whom they can be involved actively and freely. When a counselor's role description clearly indicates the counselor's counseling responsibility, there is a strong possibility that pupils will perceive that counselor in a positive manner.

The quality of the counseling service is another factor that will help or hinder the counselor's image. If a pupil seeks counseling assistance and becomes involved in a counseling relationship that has a significant effect upon his functioning, this student's satisfaction with the counseling experience is transmitted to peers who, in turn, will seek out counseling assistance when they feel the need. The counselor's image will tend toward the positive in proportion to the quality of the counseling service rendered.

Too many counselors are involved in activities that damage their image among students. A student cannot relate with ease to someone whose role is surrounded by an administrative or authoritative aura.

If a client is to make progress in counseling, he must be able to communicate freely with the counselor. Such free communication is based upon a positive image of the counselor - an image that clearly focuses upon the counselor's counseling function.

The Fifth Strategy: The Counselor Must Motivate His Clientele to Voluntarily Seek Counseling.

Some school counselors interview each member of a student body for ten or fifteen minutes at the beginning of a school year. These interviews are defended as a necessary starting point whereby students can become acquainted with the counselor, and they usually revolve around the gathering of information by the counselor. When a counselor bases his function upon such a mechanical interviewing procedure, it is not surprising that pupils perceive him as an information-gatherer or the guardian of the cumulative record. It is seriously doubtful that many students will seek out the assistance of a counselor whose projected image revolves around data collection.

Students voluntarily seek the assistance of a counselor when that counselor possesses a positive image. In order to present such an image to pupils, counselors should become more sensitive to group procedures as a far more beneficial orientation to counseling.[8] In the group setting, the counselor is better able to render a positive image of himself, since the stigma of being an information-gathering interviewer is removed. By means of the group process, the counselor is able to indicate what he is, what he is not, what students may expect from the counseling relationship, and the ease with which an appointment for counseling can be made.

Adequate student orientation to the counselor's role would be only the beginning point in motivating students to seek counseling. Once again, the quality of the counseling relationship must be of significance to the student; when it is, he transmits this awareness to his peers along the student grapevine, and a student grapevine's perception of a counseling program will have a direct bearing upon that program's effectiveness.

Glenn E. Smith indicates the relationship between self-referred students and a counseling program's effectiveness when he states:

> Voluntary use of the counseling service by a significant percentage of pupils in the school is often an indication that it is serving counselees in a satisfactory manner. A basic assumption in this connection is that there exists a positive relationship between the demand for counseling services and their value to pupils. Consequently, pupils who have received valuable assistance from the counselor are likely to recommend him to their friends. A persistent increase in the number of pupils who seek assistance through the counseling service may be a strong indication that it is functioning effectively.[9]

When students voluntarily seek out counseling assistance, it is an indication that the counseling service possesses a positive image and is functioning effectively.

The Sixth Strategy: The Counselor Must Provide Orientations to Those Groups Whom He Serves.

Pupil orientation to the essence of a counseling program is obviously most necessary. Other groups for whom orientations should be provided are the faculty, administrators, parents, and the community.[10]

If a counseling program is to be accepted, counselors must be involved in the process of communication so that different groups may become sensitive to the philosophical and empirical considerations that undergird the counseling program. An isolated counseling program cannot hope to develop a positive awareness among those whom it serves; adequate provisions must be made to present the nature of the program.

However, in the process of working toward environmental acceptance, the counselor must avoid the tendency to shape a program so that the gains made in environmental acceptance are not counterbalanced by a concessionary gnawing away at a counseling program's substance. The principles upon which a counseling program is built should not be diluted in a neurotic effort to gain acceptance. If this occurs, all that remains is a well-received counselor whose reputation far exceeds his actual ability.[11]

An effective counseling program, then, is one in which orientations have been provided for those groups which the program serves.

The Seventh Strategy: The Counselor Must Exist in a Democratic Administrative Atmosphere.

Autocratic administrative attitudes result in school programs that are designed to protect the administrator's security rather than to meet the needs of youngsters. Under an autocratic administration, various

programs within a school are stifled because staff members do not possess the creative freedom to mold programs of value to the youngsters.

Gordon indicates that programs of significance are developed when staff members feel secure and free from threat.[12] Staff members cannot be expected to develop meaningful procedures if their thought processes and tendencies are capped by an administrator who has the neurotic need to control.

When a staff member exists in a democratic atmosphere, he is able to pursue his function with clarity and ease. He can investigate the procedures whereby a more meaningful program can be built. He is introspective because he doesn't feel the need to be defensive. He goes far beyond expectations because he has the freedom to pursue. Significant ideas are brought forward because of a horizontal, rather than a vertical, relationship with school administrators. Programs of consequence are initiated, developed, and refined. The result: programs that meet pupil needs more accurately.

Koopman, Miel, and Misner[13] present an accurate description of the democratic administrator and what can be accomplished because of his leadership. Creative ideas are brought into being when a staff member works in an administrative atmosphere that encourages his tendency to come to grips with the ancient challenges of education. When the functioning of staff members is limited by the boundaries of what an administrator considers to be right or wrong, the result is mediocrity.

A counseling program of significance, then, must exist in a democratic administrative atmosphere - an atmosphere conducive to program growth and development.

School Counselors Determine Their Role

At the Muzzey Junior High School in Lexington, Massachusetts, the seven strategies presented (the stimulus component of the program) served as the foundation on which a client-centered school counseling program was initiated and developed.[14]

The focal point of this counseling program was a democratically conceived role description reflecting the professional and self-determined identity of the secondary school counselors. The role description states clearly, and in unmistakable terms, the school counselor's proper functions and those functions which are outside the role of the counselor.[15] The following specific concepts, which clearly distinguish the counselor as someone unique and different from teacher and administrator, are contained in the role description.

The school counselor:

1. Engages in professional counseling with individuals and groups

of students who have problems of any nature which inhibit their ability to learn.

2. Motivates students to seek counseling of their own volition through a continuous and creative program of orientation to counseling.

3. Conducts research designed to measure the effectiveness of individual and group counseling.

4. Functions as a resource consultant to school and nonschool personnel to meet the needs of each individual student.

5. Assists in providing testing services.

6. Assists in the placement and grouping of students in order to provide a learning situation of maximum benefit to each.

7. Provides an in-service training program for teachers, administrators, and other school personnel designed to help them become better acquainted with the philosophical and empirical considerations which influence the work of the counselor.

Perhaps the section of the role description with the greatest impact lists the functions that are outside the role of the secondary school counselor. The following are functions for which the school counselor is not directly responsible.

1. Performing administrative duties such as providing parents with academic reports, issuing failure notices to parents, arranging for bus transportation, planning and conducting field trips, establishing honor rolls, determining membership in honor societies, or providing orientation to pupils who are failing in their academic studies.

2. Performing instructional, proctorial, tutorial, or supervisory duties such as substitute teaching, remedial tutoring, study-hall supervision, cafeteria supervison, or hall patrol.

3. The disciplining of students.

4. Clerical tasks that prevent him from devoting his full effort to professional activities; e.g., screening incoming phone calls, recording routine information on cumulative records, punching cards used for automated data processing, preparing transcripts, scoring tests and recording test data, providing homework for absentee students, preparing transfer forms, filing, scheduling, parent-teacher conferences, and registering new pupils.

5. The scheduling of classes or the arrangement of academic programs.

6. Checking attendance or serving as a truant officer.

This role description was the foundation upon which the counseling program was built. It is a description that evolved from the philosophical constructs of the program and was democratically conceived by school counselors, and it proved to be an effective means for developing an environmental awareness and understanding of the counselor's function.

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BEHAVIORAL COUNSELING: AN OVERVIEW

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Just what is behavioral counseling? What does it offer to the practicing counselor to enable him to become more effective in the work that he is doing? Basically, the behavioral counseling approach is one based on learning theory, dealing with the effects of experience on behavior. Based on the premise that most behavior is learned, the behavioral counselor views counseling as a learning process, one in which the counselor's job is to aid the client to learn more effective ways of behaving so that the client's own goals are more likely to be reached. As such, the counselor sees his job as setting up or arranging conditions that may help the client to learn new ways of coping with his problems.

Certainly a unique feature of behavioral counseling is that its advocates start with learning theory and then develop procedures for behavior change based on that theory. The real emphasis of the behavioral counselor is on overt behavior, that is, behavior which can be observed or measured. Thus, a behavioral counselor would not verbalize a counseling goal in the same way that the nonbehaviorist would. For instance, where a nonbehaviorist might set a counseling goal as "to improve the client's self-concept," the behavioral approach insists on specifying those behaviors which indicate improvement in the self-concept. For the behavioral counselor, counseling is a learning process designed to increase adaptive behavior and to decrease maladaptive behavior. Ullmann and Krasner (1965) suggest three major initial questions which the behavior therapist is likely to ask: (1) "What behavior is maladaptive; that is, what subject behaviors should be increased or decreased?"; a question which points out the need to distinguish between those behaviors which need to be facilitated and those which need to be extinguished; (2) "What environmental contingencies currently support the subject's behavior?"; a question which points out the need to discover the events in the life of the client which are supporting and maintaining his behavior; and (3) "What environmental changes, usually reinforcing stimuli, may be manipulated to alter the subject's behavior?" This approach places little emphasis on any kind of deep-rooted problem that the individual may have. Rather the total thrust is on learning the effect of present experiences on behavior and determining changes in those experiences which will lead to a change in behavior.

LEARNING THEORY PRINCIPLES

Counselors engaged in behavioral counseling make use of a variety of learning theories, though actual procedures may be explained with ease by any one of a number of those theories. Rather than to look at various learning theories, it is necessary to focus on two major parallel forms of learning: respondent and operant. Respondent learning, sometimes called classical or Pavlovian conditioning, occurs when a stimulus elicits a response, while operant learning occurs as the result of those events which follow the response. Thus respondent behavior is controlled by its antecedent while operant behavior is controlled by its consequences.

Respondent behavior includes such familiar behaviors as perspiration in response to heat, the blinking of the eyelids in response to the nearness of a foreign object, and salivation in response to food. In respondent learning, a specific kind of response is elicited by a specific kind of stimulus. A classic example of respondent conditioning is that reported by Watson and Rayner (1960) in which they elicited an emotional fear response in an infant. By presenting a rat at the same time that a loud noise was produced several times, the fear response formerly resulting from the loud noise occurred by simply presenting the rat.

In operant learning, those consequences which strengthen behavior are called reinforcers. Instead of eliciting a specific class of behavior, a reinforcer is any event which increases the probability of any resulting behavior. Thus a hungry animal may behave in a wide variety of ways, and any or all of them immediately followed by food will be stengthened. The important thing is that an activity or an event is reinforcing simply because it has an effect on behavior. If a reinforcing stimulus is a pleasant one, for example, one that provides an individual an opportunity for some novel activity, then the event or stimulus is positive reinforcement increasing the likelihood that a particular act with which it is associated will be repeated.

The process of eliminating a behavior is referred to as extinction. A behavior is extinguished when it no longer occurs. One method of extinction is that of counter conditioning. In one study in which a small boy was taught to make a fear response to a rabbit, that fear was extinguished through a counter-conditioning approach. This was done by bringing the rabbit into the room while he was eating dinner in a high chair. Since the rabbit was kept at the far end of the room and the boy was hungry, the rabbit's presence did not interfere with the pleasure resulting from eating. As the rabbit was moved closer to him over a period of days, the fear response gradually decreased until the boy was able to eat while petting the rabbit.

Likewise, extinction occurs whenever a reinforcement for a behavior is withdrawn. For example, many classroom teachers have the problem of students blurting out questions to them, interrupting the

class. In most cases such behavior has been reinforced by answering the student quickly so that the teacher could continue. In order to extinguish this behavior, however, it is necessary to ignore the student, denying him attention as well as preventing him from getting his question answered. This period of extinction is often a difficult one because the individual who controls the reinforcing events often fails to wait out the extinction period and gives the student the added attention. If this occurs too often, a partial reinforcement effect occurs.

Partial reinforcement is important not only because it explains resistance to extinction but because it also can be used to increase the permanence of an appropriate or desired behavior. In natural life, reinforcement usually does not occur every time a correct response is made. Thus an individual will behave appropriately because he has been reinforced frequently in the past and because he is able to tell himself that he has done well, looking forward to telling others of his accomplishment, so that these others will provide a reinforcement by giving approval. New behaviors are more quickly learned when the behavior is reinforced each time it occurs. However, tho behaviors are also easily unlearned.

To bring about learning which is more permanent, then, the behavior should be reinforced every time it occurs at the beginning. After the behavior is acquired, the reinforcement should follow the behavior only part of the time, building a tendency to perform the behavior even though no reinforcement follows. The percentage of behaviors reinforced should gradually decrease during this time in order to prevent extinction.

Sometimes it is difficult to create conditions in which a desired behavior will occur for the first time so that the behavior can be reinforced. If the probability of the desired behavior occurring is low, or if the counselor does not wish to wait for the behavior, then shaping of the response is necessary. Shaping is the procedure of reinforcing successively closer approximations of the desired behavior. The way most normal children learn to talk illustrates the way shaping works. The first babbling sounds made by infants are certain to cause the parents to smile, speak warmly, and pay attention. Gradually, as these babbling sounds become more and more like words, only those sounds which parents can find similar to their language are reinforced. Later, closer approximations are required until the child is able to make sounds which are meaningful to adults.

IMPORTANCE OF THE COUNSELING RELATIONSHIP

Now that the authors have described much of what they mean by the term "behavioral," it is important to discuss our definition of "counseling." Counseling is seen as a face-to-face meeting between two people with the purpose of helping one of them. Counseling differs from other types of help in that it occurs within a relationship between two people.

The relationship between counselor and client features a series of face-to-face meetings with the purpose of helping one of the two. In behavior modification behavioral techniques may be used to help someone who is not aware he is being helped--autistic children, inmates in a hospital, etc. The authors are limiting their discussion to behavioral counseling which is defined as occuring within a relationship which is established over time with the purpose of helping another.

Components of Help

As the two people meet, the essential element between them is trust. Many clients never return to counselors. In fact, Schlosser and Wiener. (1965) point out that fully a third of the contacts between client and counselor never exceed five contacts. Clients are looking for something. An essential element in what they seek is someone they can trust.

The Respect Scale from Carkhuff's (1969) facilitative dimensions of counseling seems to operationalize this component as well as any. According to this definition, a person respects another when he first acknowledges his feelings of the moment (Kell & Burrow, 1970). The essential ingredient between counselor and client is whether the client comes to feel that he can trust this helper. Trust means the helper will allow him to express his own thoughts and feelings even when they are painful. The sharing process further develops a bond. The first essential ingredient occurs when the counselor communicates at least a minimal degree of respect, or caring and trust as they are frequently termed.

Counselor educators and practitioners can judge their degree of facilitative skill by using the Scale for Respect reported in Figure 1.

Figure 1

THE COMMUNICATION OF RESPECT IN INTERPERSONAL PROCESSES
A SCALE FOR MEASUREMENT

Level 1

The verbal and behavioral expressions of the helper communicate a clear lack of respect (or negative regard) for the helpee(s).

EXAMPLE: The helper communicates to the helpee that the helpee's feelings and experiences are not worthy of consideration or that the helpee is not capable of acting constructively. The helper may become the sole focus of evaluation.

In summary, in many ways the helper communicates a total lack of respect for the feelings, experiences, and potentials of the helpee.

Level 2

The helper responds to the helpee in such a way as to communicate little respect for the feelings, experiences, and potentials of the helpee(s).

EXAMPLE: The helper may respond mechanically or passively or ignore many of the feelings of the helpee.

In summary, in many ways the helper displays a lack of respect or concern for the helpee's feelings, experiences, and potentials.

Level 3

The helper communicates the minimal acknowledgment of regard for the helpee's position and concern for the helpee's feelings, experiences, and potentials.

EXAMPLE: The helper communicates an openness to the prospect of the helpee's ability to express himself and to deal constructively with his life situation.

In summary, in many ways the helper communicates the possibility that who the helpee is and what he does may matter to the helper, at least minimally. Level 3 constitutes the minimal level of facilitative interpersonal functioning.

Level 4

The helper clearly communicates a very deep respect and concern for the helpee.

EXAMPLE: The helper's responses enable the helpee to feel free to be himself and to experience being valued as an individual.

In summary, the helper communicates a very deep caring for the feelings, experiences, and potentials of the helpee.

Level 5

The helper communicates the very deepest respect for the helpee's worth as a person and his potentials as a free individual.

EXAMPLE: The helper cares very deeply for the human potentials of the helpee and communicates a commitment to enabling the helpee to actualize this potential.

In summary, the helper does everything he can to enable the helpee to act most constructively and emerge most fully. (Carkhuff, 1969)

A second important ingredient for the helping relationship is understanding. When writers describe just what composes counseling success or help for counselees, understanding is listed. For example, Leona Tyler (1961) writes,

> "It is necessary that the counselor, as he listens, constantly and automatically, put himself in the client's place and try to see the circumstances as he sees them, not as they look to an outsider."

Other writers have also stressed the importance of understanding leading to a "theoretical convergence" regarding empathic understanding (Brammer & Shostrum, 1960; Kell and Mueller, 1966; Truax & Carkhuff, 1964).

In 1967 Krumboltz placed understanding within a context of behavioral counseling.

> "The skills to be taught include the skill of empathic listening and the communicating of counselor understanding. This skill of empathic listening, which forms the sine qua non of Rogerian client-centered counseling, is one, but not the only one, of many skills which a behaviorally oriented counselor must learn...(this) must be taught for two reasons: (a) the client is likely not to describe the totality of his problems unless he thinks his listener will understand things from his point of view; and (b) the counselor's ability to communicate his understanding of the client's problem to him establishes the counselor as an important person in the client's life and therefore one able to be an influential model and effective reinforcing agent (Krumboltz, 1967).

Figure 2 shows the Scale for Empathic Understanding (Carkhuff, 1969) which describes one operational definition of empathy.

Figure 2

EMPATHIC UNDERSTANDING IN INTERPERSONAL PROCESSES
A SCALE FOR MEASUREMENT

Level 1

The verbal and behavioral expressions of the helper either do not attend to or detract significantly from the verbal and behavioral expressions of the helpee(s) in that the communicate significantly less of the helpee's feelings and experiences than the helpee has communicated himself.

EXAMPLE: The helper communicates no awareness of even the most obvious, expressed surface feelings of the helpee. The helper may be bored or disinterested or simply operating from a preconceived frame of reference which totally excludes that of the helpee(s).

In summary, the helper does everything but express that he is listening, understanding, or being sensitive to even the most obvious feelings of the helpee in such a way as to detract significantly from the communications of the helpee.

Level 2

While the helper responds to the expressed feelings of the helpee(s), he does so in such a way that he subtracts noticeable affect from the communications of the helpee.

EXAMPLE: The helper may communicate some awareness of obvious, surface feelings of the helpee, but his communications drain off a level of the affect and distort the level of meaning. The helper may communicate his own ideas of what may be going on, but these are not congruent with the expressions of the helpee.

In summary, the helper tends to respond to other than what the helpee is expressing or indicating.

Level 3

The expressions of the helper in response to the expressions of the helpee(s) are essentially interchangeable with those of the helpee in that they express essentially the same affect and meaning.

EXAMPLE: The helper responds with accurate understanding of the surface feelings of the helpee but may not respond to or may misinterpret the deeper feelings.

In summary, the helper is responding so as to neither subtract from nor add to the expressions of the helpee. He does not respond accurately to how that person really feels beneath the surface feelings; but he indicates a willingness and openness to do so. Level 3 constitutes the minimal level of facilitative interpersonal functioning.

Level 4

The responses of the helper add noticeably to the expressions of the helpee(s) in such a way as to express feelings a level deeper than the helpee was able to express himself.

EXAMPLE: The helper communicates his understanding of the expressions of the helpee at a level deeper than they were expressed and thus enables the helpee to experience and/or express feelings he was unable to express previously.

In summary, the helper's responses add deeper feeling and meaning to the expressions of the helpee.

Level 5

The helper's responses add significantly to the feeling and meaning of the expressions of the helpee(s) in such a way as to accurately express feeling levels below what the helpee himself was able to express or, in the event of ongoing, deep self-exploration on the helpee's part, to be fully with him in his deepest moments.

EXAMPLE: The helper responds with accuracy to all of the helpee's deeper as well as surface feelings. He is "tuned in" on the helpee's wave length. The helper and the helpee might proceed together to explore previously unexplored areas of human existence.

In summary, the helper is responding with a full awareness of who the other person is and with a comprehensive and accurate empathic understanding of that individual's deepest feelings. (Carkhuff, 1969)

Role of Communication

The two key ingredients of trust and empathic understanding are not enough if they remain characteristics of the counselor. It is crucial that the counselor communicate his facilitation to the client. The strength of Carkhuff's scales are that the communication between helper and helpee must be observable to another party, the rater. With operational definitions of the key components of the helping process, learners can discriminate between statements which are helpful and those which are not. Gradually counseling students can learn to communicate these dimensions to clients.

As opposed to most of the writers who cite understanding, Carkhuff stresses this aspect of counseling because the results of various outcome studies indicate that those counselors who are most facilitative have clients who make the most change in positive directions (Truax and Carkhuff, 1967).

If the client perceives that the counselor understands and respects him then he will dare to go another step--trust the counselor. The relationship is built as the client experiences trust and understanding from a helping adult. The behavioral approach insures that no one has to assume help is occuring or that "surely" a relationship

is formed. An outsider can rate a counselor's facilitative skills thanks to the scales described in Figures 1 and 2. In addition the use of behavioral goals leads to outcomes that both client and counselor can see.

SPECIFYING COUNSELING GOALS

One important characteristic of the behavioral approach is that the counselor establishes specific counseling goals. Previously many of the main problems in the field of counseling have been a lack of specifying what the counselor was to accomplish. Too often counseling goals have been so general and so vague that the client, and perhaps even the counselor, had little idea about what was to be accomplished. This shift from the general to the specific means that both the client and the counselor will understand precisely the specific change which is desired. Very often the traditional counselor, though trying very hard to understand the client, may find the process is vague and confusing so far as the client is concerned. Although the counselor may be able to state what is being accomplished as, "We're exploring" or "We're understanding," the client often has no idea about what is going on. An example of this comes from an early experience of one of the authors with Sally, a ninth grader. The author had seen Sally as a prize client four or five times and felt that they were beginning to achieve some movement as they explored her views of herself and her environment. However, one day, when notified in a civics class that it was time for another interview, she loudly gathered her books and announced to the entire class. "Oh, not again! I wish he'd tell me what we're supposed to be doing down there."

An additional advantage for specifying concrete reachable goals is that the client will be better able to see change that occurs. Such change is motivating both to the client and the counselor. For many years educators have known that success breeds success; and as the client sees progress toward reaching the goals, he is motivated to work harder in counseling. An additional point needs to be made here. One of the reasons why counselors have not been setting specific goals is because they have not dared to take the psychological risks involved in specifying how their client will be different. To do so presumes that the counselor thinks he can help. However, counselors have been hired to help; and if they cannot, then the client needs to be referred to someone else.

In formulating and establishing goals, it is often necessary to develop intermediate or day-to-day objectives to bring about successive approximations of the desired behavior, that is, to provide opportunity for the individual to learn change in very small steps rather than to expect him to make dramatic changes overnight. Thus, the client who is having difficulty relating to members of the opposite sex may need to develop intermediate goals of learning to say "Hello," to initiate conversation, to ask a girl for a date, and other such behaviors before he can accomplish an over-all goal of feeling comfortable and free from anxiety while with girls.

The Behavior Contract

One of the exciting new developments which has resulted from the behavioral counseling approach has been the use of the behavior contract in counseling. The contract is negotiated--a process we define as when each of two parties desires something and is willing to give up some of what he desires in order to gain his own goal if he sees the other party will also. Sulzer (1962) was was one of the first to discuss the concept of the behavior contract as a means of measuring counseling success. He incorporated verbal instructions into the counseling process by making a contract between the counselor and client. Such a contract clearly specifies what kinds of counseling goals are to be achieved, permitting the assessment of the process by determining the fulfillment of the counseling contract.

Stating mutually acceptable goals fits our idea of the most effective educational process. Working from the current ideal of "meeting the individual needs of the student and that of society," the behavior contract permits these sometimes conflicting needs to be met by bringing together the two parties involved. Sometimes developing an agreement as to what both the individual and the society needs provides an avenue of communication, a way of finding out the needs for both parties.

Likewise, the behavior contract is a logical extension of the use of reinforcement in that the contract is a method of specifying reinforcement contingencies in advance. Working from the realization that language enables human beings to anticipate changing their behavior, the behavior contract permits the client to participate at two levels of the reinforcement process. The first level is in the specifying of the desired behavior to be achieved. The second level is in helping to determine the specified reinforcements that will be used to reward the desired behavior. Thus a behavior contract is simply an agreement between two or more persons specifying what each person will do for a stated period of time (Krumboltz and Thoresen, 1969). It takes the form, "If you wil do _____, I'll do _____." The behavior contract thus becomes a method of giving the client "specific things to do" while avoiding the process of nagging him to do something. This technique may also be used between a teacher and a student, with the counselor serving as a mediator or consultant in developing the contract.

Both oral and written contracts can be used by the school counselor. The key difference between the oral and written contract is simply that of whether or not the conditions of the contract are to be written down and agreed to by each individual signature. Such a distinction rests entirely upon the nature of the agreement being negotiated and the relationship between the parties that are involved. The verbal, or oral, contract is to be used when the conditions of the contract are such that there is little change of a misunderstanding regarding those conditions; that is, when the required behavior as well as the resulting positive reinforcement are simple enough that they do not require being written down. The written contract is thus used to prevent

misunderstandings regarding contract conditions, as well as when the counselor feels that the added impact of having the client sign his name to the agreement would be beneficial.

The Oral Contract. Oral contracts are often used in determining behavior within the counseling session, as well as behavior outside the session. Counselors may wish to develop an agreement with the student which determines how the counseling sessions are to be structured. Such a contract may specify the kinds of problems or topics with which the counseling sessions will deal, for instance, agreeing to stick to school-related material, determining the possible sequence of those problems or topics, or choosing the various counseling techniques which might be used in dealing with the problem. Likewise, such a contract might also include time limitations, that is, the number of times that the client and the counselor would meet or the period of time over which the counseling would occur.

One application of the oral contract with regard to counseling sessions is that of using a tentative contract which the counselor and the client agree to at the very beginning of their counseling as some guidelines for the first three sessions. The most important part of this agreement is that the client agrees to inform the counselor whenever the client feels (1) that he has received as much help as he desires and therefore does not need any more counseling, (2) that he doesn't think that the counseling is helpful and would like to discontinue the counseling, or (3) that he doesn't like the counselor. Such an agreement deals with the tremendous problem that counselors often face, that of clients failing to return for the second and third visits.

Oral contracts which deal with the client's behavior outside the counseling interview have been used by counselors for many years. Based on the idea that counselor interest is an effective reinforcement, oral contracts are often simple agreements that the client will try specific behaviors and report the success or failure of those behaviors to the counselor. One example of this came when one of the authors asked his client, a college co-ed who had assumed too much responsibility in terms of her role in her sorority, to telephone him whenever she was successful in her target behavior--delegating responsibility to someone else or refusing to accept new responsibility for herself. After several telephone calls, the client suggested that the telephoning was no longer necessary, since she had now learned the new behavior pattern.

The Written Contract. When the contract conditions become slightly complex so that misunderstanding might occur, the written contract should be used. Such a contract might include the responsibility for all parties, making clear what each is expected to do, and what each will receive if his part of the contract is fulfilled or not fulfilled. In using the written contract it is essential that all participants sign their names indicating that they agree to the conditions stated since a written signature is generally far more significant to the individual than is an oral approval.

Characteristics of an Effective Conract. Several features are necessary for an effective contract. The first is that all expectations be described carefully and completely. This simply means that the terms on both sides of the contract must be explicitly stated. For example, an unclear contract would say "lose some weight and then you will be permitted to do something rewarding." A more clearly stated contract would say "lose five pounds and then you will be permitted to buy a new record album." All parties of the contracts must always know how much performance or behavior change is expected of them and what kind of payoff can be expected.

Second, the contract must be fair so that neither the counselor, the teacher, the student, nor any other person feels abused or pressured to agree. The terms of the contract on both sides of the agreement must be of relatively equal weight. Imagine a contract, for example, in which a parent says to a child, "If you make all A's throughout the school year, I will buy you a candy bar." Such a contract could hardly be called fair. On the other hand, if the parent says to the child, "If you sit quietly for two minutes, I will buy you a bicycle," then this might also be an unbalanced contract, since the reward would be so much greater than the desired behavior. If the contract is to be successful, all parties must feel that the amount of reward relates to the amount of performance.

In addition, contracts need to be frequently evaluated and perhaps renegotiated as the parties to the contract experience the effects of the agreement. An initially fair contract may not be fair at a later date. Thus the inclusion of a condition within the contract which calls for the periodic re-evaluation of the terms of the contract provides an opportunity to negotiate necessary changes and thus prevent resentment on the part of the client, the counselor, the teacher, or the parent.

A third characteristic of an effective contract is the inclusion of mutually acceptable goals. There are occasions when a contract may involve different end goals for the various parties. Yet all are satisfied when their individual goals have been met simultaneously. The behavior contract is far more effective when the contract is developed by all parties in a negotiation phase rather than when one individual develops the contract and attempts to impose it on the other party or parties.

Fourth, the contract must be reasonable and feasible. The failure of many behavior contracts is the direct result of impossible terms. It is sometimes easy for a teacher or counselor to convince a student to agree to an unreasonable contract with no chance for student success. Such a contract might include a condition requiring a student to make perfect grades on all class examinations, when the student's potential is below perfection or when the teacher's examinations make it highly improbable that a student would have a perfect paper. Likewise any term of the contract which is impossible to enforce such as, "If you slouch in your chair one more time, you may never come back to class," should be avoided.

Fifth, the contract should call for and reward performance rather than simple obedience. Thus the contract should read "If you accomplish such and such you will be rewarded with such and such," rather than "If you do what I tell you to do, I will reward you with such and such." Reward for performance leads to continued performance and eventually to independence. Reward for obedience leads only to continued dependence on the person from whom the child learns to be obedient.

Sixth, the contract should be positive. Both the desired behavior of the client and the payoff which the client is to receive should be stated in positive terms. Contracts which emphasize the negative are more unlikely to be fulfilled; for instance, "If you don't quit leaning back in your chair, I will punish you." A positive approach produces a more favorable attitude toward the contract. Any negative goal can be stated in a positive manner; for instance, "If you will sit in your chair properly for ten minutes, you may have an extra five minutes of recess."

A final characteristic of an effective contract is that it must be concluded with mutual satisfaction and an assessment of the total contractual agreement (Dinoff and Rickard, 1969), so that the contract provides reinforcement resulting from the feeling of success and offers hope for use in further difficulties. Therefore, an effective contract possesses the means for all parties to determine when the goals have been met.

PLANNING FOR CHANGE

Since the point of counseling is change in clients, it seems essential for counselors to possess skills that enable clients to bring about successful changes in their own lives. Basically behavioral techniques can be viewed in three general areas: the contract itself as it leads to change; transfer of new behaviors into the client's life outside the interview; and teaching clients self-reinforcement.

Use of Contracts for Lasting Change

When the oral contract is established, most often the client and counselor establish a written contract or "Action Plan." It is the process of establishing the order of change that intensely involves the client in his own design for change. This involvement of the client is the main advantage of behavioral counseling. The difference between "superficial" change, in which clients learn to talk differently to counselors or in which clients report that they now see themselves differently, and lasting change is that lasting change includes new behavior which occurs in the client's life.

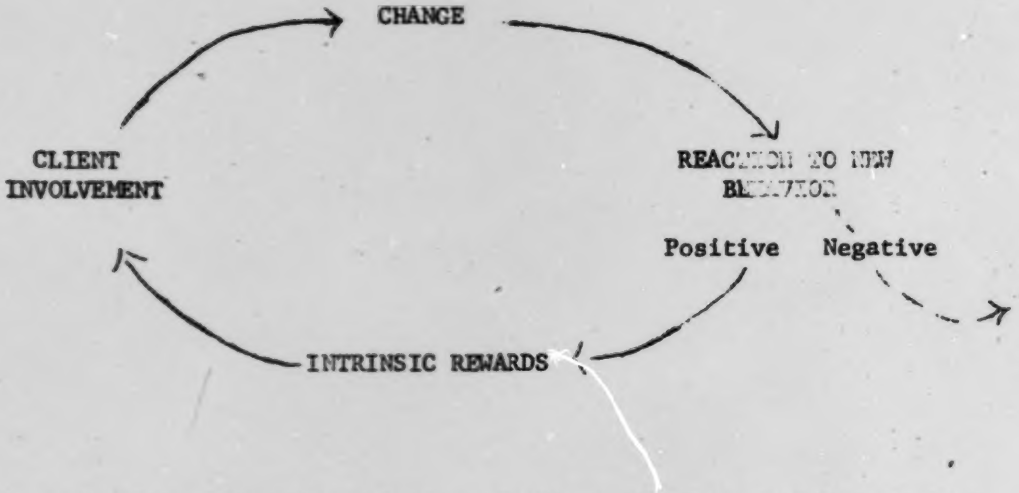
The goals of behavioral counseling are worded in terms of client needs and often in clients' own language. The client can keep his own purposes for coming to counseling clearly in mind as he proceeds.

Since the client knows what he wants, he can determine his own progress. As he tries a change, however small, the client experiences change in himself. As he progresses, the client becomes increasingly confident in his own ability to change. Such change in performance affects the attitudes of the client. Client attitudes are affected by client behaviors. In behavioral counseling the client is involved in the change process and his attitudes toward achievement and toward himself are formed as he experiences successful progress with his problem.

The client experiences not only change, but success. The feelings that accompany successful accomplishment of a goal provide intrinsic reward for the client. The satisfaction of success cannot be duplicated easily. As a client experiences change, he finds it hard to settle for praise from others. In fact, to the authors, it seems obvious that the only writers or critics of behavioral counseling who worry that clients will become too dependent or are being "taught to strive for bribes or rewards" are those writers who have not tried behavioral counseling and have not seen clients learn to work for their own satisfaction.

Figure 3

INVOLVEMENT AND CHANGE



The cycle above shows the relation of client change and client involvement in the change process. If the client reacts negatively to the change, the new behavior becomes less frequent and is extinguished. If the client reacts favorably, then he is reinforced which adds to his involvement and leads to more change which, if received positively, leads to increasing involvement and to additional change.

Figure 3 diagrams the cyclical nature of client change and increasing client involvement. It also points out, however, that clients cannot be expected to remain involved in a process that is not rewarding to them.

Behavioral contracts furnish both counselor and client with the opportunity to focus on the goals of the client. In addition, the action plan, which is often in the form of a written contract, enables both to concentrate on obtainable changes that can be accomplished in a relatively short time. The role of the counselor during the action phase becomes one of support for the client while he undergoes change.

Example: A young mother of three, who was still under 20, was sent to an urban junior college by her case worker from ADC. The program was to spot promising young mothers and to make it possible for them to obtain the necessary training to obtain suitable employment. The young mother was tutored for a year at the junior college so that she might be admitted to the college as a regular student. The young lady described her progress as slow and discouraging. When asked how she kept going, she replied that twice a week she went to the counseling office. "It's so hip and loose in there. Man, I just can't wait to go in tell 'em how I'm doing." The support and approval this woman was able to get in the counseling office was what enabled her to stick to the long hard process of changing.

Transfer of New Behaviors

Although the whole point of counseling is client change, it is a specific type of change that the behavioral counselor seeks. The change must be in the setting in which the client was having trouble when he came to counseling. As the client and counselor establish the goals for counseling in their contract, the setting becomes established. Through the negotiation process and the communication of facilitative responses, the counselor becomes an important person to the client. Only when the counselor is perceived as an important, helpful person capable of understanding and caring, is a client likely to involve himself in the counseling process. In addition to becoming important, the counselor can use himself as a model.

Modeling. Modeling is probably the single most important application of a learning principle. If a person who enjoys prestige in the eye of a client is seen performing some act, the observer (client) is more likely to perform the same act. Modeling is the attempt to change behavior in an individual by showing him a person exhibiting that behavior.

There are many types of models which may be used. Real models have the advantage of behaving in the target setting. Often real models can exchange information with the client and give him some pointers as he

prepares to rehearse the key behavior. Video tapes and audio tapes of models provide an extremely flexible repertoire for the behavioral counselor. The authors have used trained clients and trained models to make some demonstration tapes to be used as models. The advantage of technological models lies in the increased control and the ability to achieve exactly the desired behavior.

The behavioral counselor may act as a model for his client. Because of his important position in the client's life, the counselor may provide a general model of effectiveness. As clients see him dealing with every day frustration and with situational crises in his office, the client sees a life style he may wish to emulate. In addition, the counselor can use himself to provide a very specific example for the client. With certain clients the counselor may model calm, rational response to anger-provoking stimuli. With other clients, the counselor may model a systematic, goal-directed approach to problem solving. With other clients, the counselor might model persistence--even when uncertain of a safe outcome. The heart of the transfer of new behaviors is the process in which the client witnesses effective behaviors.

After the client understands what the new behavior looks like, he is ready to practice. Rehearsing is a step that is often used to build the confidence of the client. As he prepares to try, he may wish to use the behavior with the counselor. At times the counselor can add to the chances for success by role-playing. As the counselor and client act out the up-coming challenge, the client can experience how he may feel and see what effect the new behavior may have on the target person.

Reality testing involves the client on a "solo." However, the support of the counselor is still very much a factor in the change process. It is important that the counselor anticipate unexpected visits and calls from clients as they enter this stage of change. Although they are "on their own" in many respects, clients are also extremely vulnerable as they re-enter the troubled setting that sent them for help in the first place.

As the client re-enters the outside world, the counselor is used to explore the client's feeling of reward and success as he sees himself progress. In such cases the counselor goes for increasingly longer periods of time without seeing the client. At other times, reality proves too much and discouraged clients, who wonder why they ever tried to change in the first place, find their way to the counselor. In such cases the counselor must avoid games like "Who's to Blame?" Instead, the counselor and client plan together whether more practice is needed--perhaps a "half-real" situation for further practice is needed. Finally the two face the client back towards the world and send him off to try again, perhaps to try less challenging behavior, or perhaps to try the same behavior with a stranger who has a counseling office down the hall, or a friend of the counselor who has agreed to be approached in the setting the client has for a target. But the main support in the transfer of client behavior into the world is the bond that comes from client and counselor trying together.

During the process of moving the client out of the office, the counselor can steady himself and the client by focusing on specific goals.

1. The long-range goal remains the one negotiated with the client.

2. The immediate goal becomes providing support during the client's change. The main techniques remain empathy and respect.

3. The counselor must <u>first</u> explore the client's feelings, whether disappointment or elation, <u>then</u> discuss the behavior to be accomplished by the next meeting.

4. The counselor can share his own concerns and feelings about the progress if he does so within his own goals of <u>support</u> and dealing with client feelings before his own.

5. The counselor works toward termination as the client accomplishes his goals.

In addition to keeping his own goals in mind, the counselor may find that most cases follow certain stages:

1. First the counselor and client need to have the correct setting in mind. Although this was negotiated at the time of the contract, it may not hurt to check out whether both agree.

2. The counselor and client focus on the behavior the client wishes in order to make a contract.

3. The Action Plan is the step-by-step sequence of change that the client needs in order to accomplish his goal. It is important that the steps be small enough for the client to achieve success at each stage.

4. Practice or rehearsing are easily overlooked steps.

5. Half-way settings may be provided for cases where the client seems pretty sure he's not ready. Although doubt is common, the counselor learns to determine when it is more than a little doubt.

6. Receiving the client after failure is crucial for the continuance of the change process. When the client is back on cigarettes, or has just gorged himself, the tendency is to avoid the counselor. The empathy and respect of the counselor are needed to explore with the client <u>his</u> feelings.

7. Gradually the client tries more and more on his own and success leads to minimizing of the importance of the counselor's opinion.

8. Termination.

Teaching Self-Reinforcement

As the client comes to perceive the counselor as someone who can be trusted enough to be told about the need for change, negotiation can begin. In addition, this process also leads to increased client self-exploration. As the client explores his feelings and doubts, he may gain increased self-understanding. All during this process which results in a behavioral contract, or in termination, the counselor "tags" the client's feelings and the client's reactions to his own feelings by communications at a facilitative level.

It is a strong belief of ours that without any prodding, in the normal development of a counseling relationship, clients begin to report incidents in which they begin to decide what to do outside the interview. "Before deciding on a certain behavior, I ask myself what you would want me to do." Many counselors get extremely uncomfortable during this phase. But gradually clients learn to turn to themselves. The client can learn to evaluate his own responses and follow a similar process--ask himself what he wants to do. As clients become able to anticipate the effects of their own behavior and learn to think through courses of action, they gradually achieve some personal control and sense of responsibility for themselves.

The process of working toward the goal of self responsibility for the client is a definite part of the steps of action outlined earlier in this chapter. Although overlooked in social learning (Bandura, 1969) the area of self-reinforcement can be taught. As the counselor anticipates with the client what is likely to happen when the client tries a new behavior, the client achieves a sense of control over events that had previously made him feel helpless or a failure.

EXAMPLE:

Co: Let's think a minute, Jim. What is likely to happen when you go back to class?

Cl: Oh, I don't know.

Co. If you go back and try to put into practice what you have just been telling me, how do you think others will react?

Cl: I don't know. I don't even know if the teacher will notice.

Co: Um Hmmm------what if she doesn't? What is she doesn't pay any attention?

Cl: Aw, she probably won't. It will probably be like it always was before.

Co: And you sound like, or almost like, you did before. Are you telling me that if you try it and she doesn't pay any attention that you will be pretty well ready to give it up?

Clients can consider with the counselor what it would take for them to continue the new behavior even after they stop visiting the counselor. Often in their written contract, clients have found how hard they persist at a change and more important, what kind of reinforcer they can use on themselves.

EXAMPLE:

Co: You know, Jerry, I think you are ready to do this on your own now. I am not sure you need me any more.

Cl: Well, I don't know.

Co: The last two weeks you have stuck to your study program and you have rewarded yourself and really all you have been doing is stopping in here Monday mornings and explaining to me how things went.

Cl: Yeah, I guess that is right.

Co: Why don't you try it, at least until finals time, and see how it goes. I'll be right here--you can always stop back in if you want to talk over anything. What do you think?

Cl: Well, I've been thinking that maybe my studies were getting pretty heavy. Maybe I'll try it on my own until finals.

Clients can learn to withhold reinforcement from themselves until they really earn it. With children this process helps develop the ability to defer gratification and to work for longer periods of time without receiving rewards. As the counselor and client succeed in getting the client to rely more and more upon his own reinforcement, the two can set increasing periods of time or increasing numbers of performance before the client allows himself a reward.

Clients have learned many of their current behaviors through the social reinforcement of their parents and friends. As the client becomes aware of this he can consider where he can obtain warmth, approval, and agreement so that he can continue his change. Often clients can get roommates or parents to assist them by giving them reinforcers. When a client can negotiate with certain people in his environment to help him change his own behavior, the client has reached the stage of interdependence that many people call freedom.

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FEEDBACK: A NEEDED COMPONENT OF COUNSELOR ACCOUNTABILITY

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Accountability

> "Accountability refers to the process of expecting each member of an organization to answer to someone for doing specific things according to specific plans and against certain timetables to accomplish tangible performance results." (Lopez, 1970, p. 231)

Anyone close to education knows that evaluation is fundamental to effectiveness in terms of process and product. Despite this, many school counselors have failed to undertake on-going evaluation. In the past this failure has not been costly in terms of financial support for guidance; but in the future it will be. The days of purposelessness spending for guidance services are over. Recent budget cuts in many educational systems are aimed at those programs that can not provide evidence substantiating their value, with the first hand look being taken at non-teaching programs such as guidance.

Evaluation resembles the above definition of accountability. Common to both concepts is the idea of concise statement of specific objectives and appraisal of whether stated objectives have been accomplished in specified segments of time. The major difference between the two concepts is found in the emphasis that is placed upon responsibility to outside sources. Evaluation is designed to investigate whether specified goals have, or have not, been achieved. Results are used to provide the counselor with a means of internally improving his offerings both in terms of product and process.

When the counselor moves away from internal counseling concerns to ones more external in nature and when he interprets results of his evaluative procedures to his publics he has moved from a purely evaluative stance to one of accountability. For the counselor this shift in stance places him more directly in his public's eye. All involved parties are made aware of situational counseling occurrances. All know what the counselor has, or has not, accomplished. Informed parents can be made familiar with what counselors are attempting to

accomplish and they can observe subsequent counseling successes and failures. School boards and administrators can observe specific accomplishments and can receive concrete evidence referent to budgetary needs for improving services. Teachers can gain a clearer understanding of the aims and objectives of counselors while students can be made aware of what services they might expect to receive from the counseling staff.

In addition, accountability can provide the basis for developing a system of shared responsibility. Barro (1970) suggests that accountability often "places decision making and sanctioning powers in the hands of those whose lives are affected " (p. 197). Dyer (1970) reinforces the notion of joint accountability and encourages the development of district-wide accountability systems. Wildavsky (1970), in viewing the entire school, is explicit on this point. He states that "accountability not only means that the school is responsible to the parents but that the parents are responsible for the school" (p. 216). Accountability in each of these studies is viewed as the joint responsibility of the professional and of those with whom he works.

Communication theory provides a foundation for the system of joint responsibility described above. Participants in this system must be able to transmit and receive information that is substantially unencumbered by the transmission process. Therefore, it is important that counselors have a working knowledge of communications theory and that they are able to utilize elements of the theory to the mutual advantage of themselves and the recipients of their services.

A counselor's task may be facilitated if he can devise means of examining environmental communication networks and of helping his constituents understand the effects communicative barriers have on the transmission of ideas. Elaboration of Samovar and Rintye's (1970) seven elements of human communication may help counselor's achieve this end.

An idea originates with a source or sender. This idea is encoded into symbols which can be expressed into the form of a message. The message is transmitted through verbal and/or nonverbal channels. It is received and decoded by the receiver. The decoding process consists of transforming the symbols received into meaningful ideas. Once the decoding process has been completed the receiver responds or gives feedback about what he has perceived to be the meaning of the transmitted message. If the sender is satisfied that his message has been properly understood he can continue on to the next encoding operation. If, however, feedback suggests that the message has been improperly transmitted, and not understood, the sender may wish to encode an additional message to bring the receiver's understanding into congruence with his intended idea.

A "breakdown" in the transmission of messages can occur at any point. If, for instance, the sender is unable to translate ideas into symbols, or encodes ideas into unacceptable symbols, communication may be hindered. An example may illustrate this point. Suppose that a counselor were asked to speak to a PTA group about adolescent behavior and chose to use terminology of a highly technical nature. It is conceivable that the audience might experience difficulty in receiving the intended message. Communication might occur, but that which is communicated may not be what was intended by the sender. Feedback received by the counselor, from the PTA group, may or may not be sufficient to correct the situation.

A "breakdown" in this example results from sender's inability to encode ideas into symbols which are acceptable to the receiver. If the receiver is unable to decode the symbols into meaningful ideas he will respond with feedback of a negative nature. Negative feedback may result in the expenditure of additional efforts on the part of the sender. Efforts may continue until the sender and receiver are in a state of ideological congruence. At this point negative feedback will cease.

Each of the seven elements of human interaction are important to the total communication process. For the purpose of this paper, however, emphasis will now swing to discussion of the seventh element, feedback.

Feedback

Although definitions of feedback vary the core elements of each remain constant. Except in the case of linear feedback each definition incorporates the idea that the sender or source person will receive communications from the receiver. This feedback can be either positive or negative in nature. Positive feedback tends to amplify the output deviation in such a manner as to cause change, forward movement, or loss of equilibrium. The movement resulting from positive feedback is characteristically away from the norm or reference point. A group of acting-out students, for example, may behave in such a way as to amplify deviation from accepted school norms. Whereas, positive feedback amplifies output deviation negative feedback acts in a restricting capacity. Negative feedback tends to keep the system within perscribed limits and is usually characterized by homeostasis. The military use of spotters for guiding artillery is an example of the application of negative feedback. Corrections in distance and direction are transmitted from the spotter to the sender until shells fall on target. At this point the system maintains a steady state homeostasis. It can be seen that in both positive and negative feedback a portion of the system's output is "reinforced into the system

as information about the output" (Watzlawick, et al., 1967, p. 31). However, the system utilizes the reintroduced information in a contrasting manner, i.e., amplification (positive feedback) vs. restriction (negative feedback).

Feedback, in addition to being positive or negative, can be linear, circular, or helical in nature. Linear feedback has its greatest impact in one way communication. The sender can affect the receiver and not be affected in return. For example, the teacher that "performs" on video tape can influence his audience, but, because of audience remoteness, the teacher will not be affected by receiver feedback. Deviations in the message will occur because or internal sender characteristics and not as a result of information reintroduced into the system by the receiver.

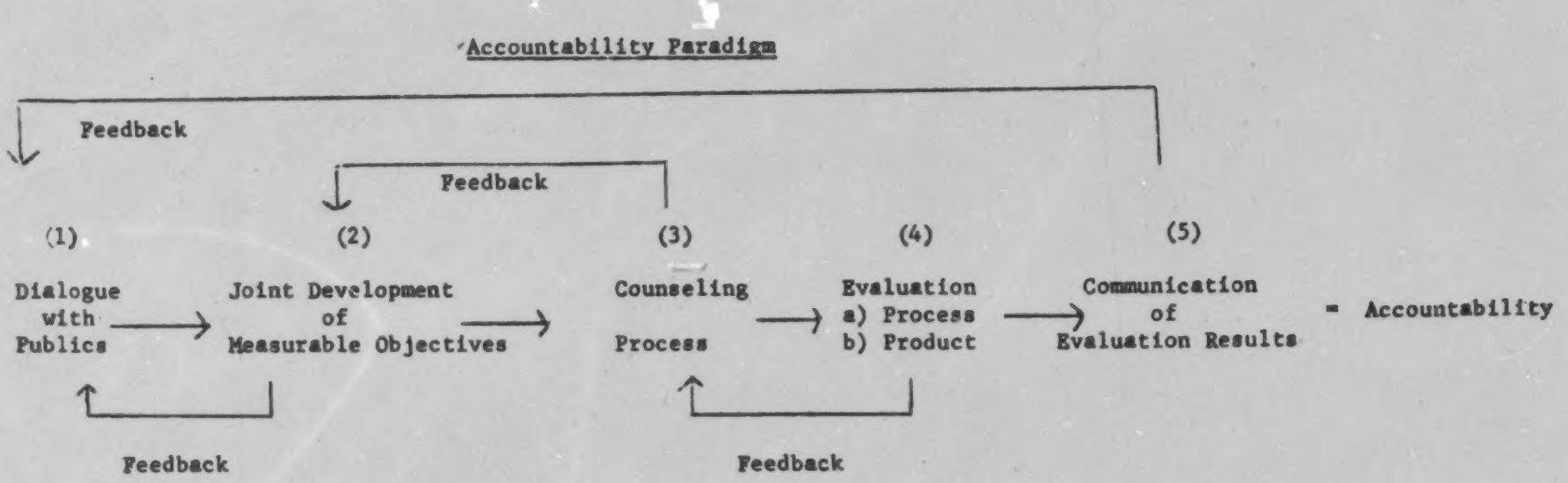
Circular feedback has a different impact in that both the sender and receiver are affected by the communicative process. The situation where a parent affects a child through disciplinary action but, in turn, is affected by the child's blase stare exemplifies this point. The importance of this type of feedback is that present communication affects what and how communication will exist it a future date. The disadvantage of the circular paradigm is that circularity implies returning to the point of origin. This probably will not occur in interpersonal communications.

The concept of helical feedback "combines the desirable features of the straight line and of the circle while avoiding the weaknesses of either" (Dance, 1967, p. 295). Linear feedback suggests directional growth from a point of origin. Circular feedback suggests that present communication is a partial determinant of future communications. Helical feedback, in drawing from both, incorporates the idea of directional growth from a point of origin, while allowing for adjustments in present behavior so as to affect future behavior. To illustrate, let us look at the teacher that interacts with students to encourage independent study behavior. The teacher is affected and encouraged to attempt new teaching techniques by the student that creates innovative learning situations. In this situation the teacher and student learn from each other. Both facilitate movement in the desired educational direction.

Finally, feedback can be either constructive or destructive in nature. If feedback is employed to help the sender measure whether his behavior is related to his intentions it is constructive. If, however, it is used to discourage or belittle an individual it is destructive. Obviously, counselors should make a concentrated effort to use the former.

For the purposes of this paper "feedback" refers to that communicative process that constructively informs the sender whether his message has been received. Further, the directionality of the feedback will enable the sender to know if he should amplify or restrict movement toward his goals.

Figure #1


Accountability Paradigm
Feedback
Feedback
(1)
(2)
(3)
(4)
(5)
Dialogue with Publics
Joint Development of Measurable Objectives
Counseling Process
Evaluation a) Process b) Product
Communication of Evaluation Results
= Accountability
Feedback
Feedback

Discussion

Counselor accountability is dependent upon effective utilization of feedback on principles and is the result of a joint effort between the public being served and the individual or organization performing the service. In school counseling the core public being served consists of students, parents, teachers, administrators, and those individuals responsible for meeting the financial obligations of the school district. Counselors, therefore, are obligated to work in conjunction with each of these factions to determine counseling objectives; perform counseling services relevant to achieving stated objectives; evaluating whether stated objectives have been achieved; and in reporting (communicating) the results of evaluative procedures to those individuals, or groups of individuals that are jointly responsible for counseling activities. The accountability paradigm pictured below can be employed to describe how this might be accomplished.

The accountability paradigm is designed to represent an on-going helical process. Inherent to this process is the idea that constructive feedback can facilitate movement from one phase to the next. Without desired feedback the total system would become inoperative, counselors would be isolated from their publics, and accountability would not exist. A closer inspection of each of the six phases can attest to the potency of feedback.

Five Phases of Accountability

(1) Dialogue with Publics

School counseling services are the joint responsibility of the counselor and his publics. Each function is perceived to have a unique role in this responsibility. Counselors provide expertise which encompasses a wide range of knowledge and skills. The publics provide demands or needs to use the expertise of counselors. Counselors, therefore, must understand the publics' needs in order to provide services which will be acceptable. Development of a system or procedure for ascertaining public needs is warranted.

Toldson (1971) speaks to this point when he outlines specific steps for counselors to follow if they wish to bring "practical applications" of counseling into congruence with "theoretical ideas." Suggestions are aimed at communication to the target population of teachers, students, administrators, parents, and community agencies. In general, the approach suggested is to provide opportunities for communication through meetings, pamphlets, speeches, panel discussions, newspapers, informal notes, bulletin board notices, and one-to-one conversations. Each method provides a medium for transmission of messages.

The message will have the same meaning for receiver and sender if the opportunity for constructive feedback is incorporated into the system. Counselors must not only provide information but must allow the recipients of that information to question, alter, inspect, and challenge that which is presented. In addition, counselors must be willing to alter their offerings so that the needs of both parties are realized. Provision for feedback will assure both counselor and constituent that counseling is truly a joint responsibility.

(2) Joint Development of Measurable Objectives

Since counseling is a joint responsibility it becomes imperative that all participating parties help establish goals. Statements of counseling objectives must be developed in general terms and refined so that they are applicable to specific situations and with particular students. In addition, objectives must be developed so that final products exist in measurable terms. Objectives stated in global or general terminology are not measurable and do not lend themselves to evaluative procedures. To facilitate movement in the desired direction counselors must be able to define, in specific terms, their areas of competency and expertise. They must know their professional and ethical limits. Likewise, those with whom they work must be able to objectively state that which they wish accomplished through the counselor's office.

The manner in which objectives are derived is highly dependent upon individual and institutional needs. Communication must exist between representatives of both elements to achieve a final product. The counselor, as a representative of the institution, is responsible for providing feedback which will keep counseling offerings within the limitations imposed by his position. The constituent, on the other hand, is responsible for providing feedback which will keep services requested within a range of personal needs. Properly employed feedback procedures, therefore, can facilitate joint realization by affecting a compromise between counselor and constituent.

(3) Counseling Process

Attainment of objectives can be accomplished through utilization of appropriate counseling procedures. Determination of those procedures deemed "appropriate," however, will result from communication between counselor and those with whom he works. This is not to say that the process utilized will be determined by the constituent. Rather, feedback from students, parents, teachers or administrators to the counselor can provide information relevant to that process or processes which seem to be most beneficial in particular situations. Certain students for example, are more comfortable in group situations than in individual settings. Communicative feedback can provide the counselor with valuable information referent to which approach is best for the individual.

Feedback provides an additional use in the counseling relationship. Counselors must be aware of the needs of students. Also, they must be aware that needs are not static but, rather, that they are in a state of change. With this in mind, counselors must help students develop the ability to use feedback procedures. Feedback from student to counselor can assure the individual that the counselor is attuned to his immediate needs. Without this provision counselors lose effectiveness and tend to be "behind the student" and not "with him."

(4) Evaluation

When applied to counseling evaluative procedures must be focused in two directions. First, counselors must be concerned with whether they are achieving objectives that they, in conjunction with their publics, have established. This might be called "product" evaluation. In essence, have they achieved outcomes they were desirous at achieving? Examples of possible outcomes include such items as better use of independent study facilities, more individually appropriate course selection, means for gaining peer acceptance, and decisions relevant to post high school goals.

A second focus of evaluation must be on the "process" employed to reach stated objectives. Was, for instance, group counseling as effective as individual counseling in helping students understand the consequences of peer pressure; were role modeling techniques effective in improving student study habits; or were reinforcement methods appropriate for increasing student class participation? Questions on this nature deal with the process of counseling.

In evaluation of both product and process feedback can be a valuable ally to the counselor. Through feedback, counselors can determine whether students have made progress toward desired goals, if stated goals are indeed appropriate, if the process used to achieve goals is desirable, and if the process employed is capable of affecting desired changes. Without systematic feedback the counselor is unable to tell if progress along the product dimension is being made, or if methodology used is beneficial, neutral, or detrimental to the recipient. Feedback can help answer these questions and through evaluation provide the basis for continued growth and improvement of counseling services.

(5) Communication of Evaluation Results

The final step, that of reporting evaluative undertakings, can have major significance. It is through this final step that counselors can determine whether evaluative procedures are sufficient and appropriate for measuring counseling outcomes and processes and if the total counseling program is meeting the needs of the counselor-student, parent, teacher, administrator team. Also dialogue can be directed toward

determining methods for improving those services offered to students. Without this final step participants in the process would be unaware of whether stated objectives had or had not been reached and constructive feedback would be precluded.

Accountability

Accountability will result from effective employment of steps one through five as outlined above. Evaluative procedures used, both short term and longitudinal, must be aimed at answering the ultimate question, "Did counseling make any difference in the lives of the individuals with whom we worked?" If, through application of the above model, counselors are able to answer this question in the affirmative they will be able to rightfully claim, "Yes, I am accountable." Feedback can provide the requisite mechanism for continuing to be so.

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WHO GET COUNSELED AND FOR WHAT?

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When many persons look at counseling they get very unfavorable impressions. There will be much in the following pages which suggest that such impressions are fully warranted. Before one passes generally unfavorable judgments on counseling, however, he should consider the fact that many school counselors carry loads that would be comparable to that of a teacher who had sixty or more students in each of her classes. If one were to appraise the effectiveness of the teaching of English or any other subject under such circumstances it seems likely that there would also be unfavorable impressions. As he reads this chapter the reader should recognize that, despite the impressions one may get about the general ineffectiveness and uncertainties of the counseling movement there are many individuals within it who can demonstrate that they contribute a great deal to the accomplishment of the objectives of education.

Counselees often ask counselors to give them answers to questions about the desirability of actions they propose to take. If the counselor is a good one he will often preface his answer with the statement, "It depends on." Then he names some circumstances which might influence a choice, and offers for consideration some possible outcomes. Similarly when one tries to answer the questions given in the title of this chapter the, "It depends" response must be utilized.

The "depends" circumstances are many and varied. They encompass among others, such matters as the personal characteristics of the counselee and the counselor. They include the locale in which the counselor works, the preparation he has had for his profession, and the state of affairs on local, regional and national scenes. And all of the above can be sub-divided in so many ways that the permutations and combinations seem endless. The sub-divisions in turn are so complicated by the individual idiosyncracies of counselors and counselees that the complexities become astronomical. In view of such complexity no general answer to the question of Who Gets Counseled and for What? can be given unless one can be satisfied with a statistical tabulation. Some statistics which may conceal more than they disclose follow.

Counselors in secondary schools currently have average loads of between four and five hundred counselees and the counselor-pupil ratios in elementary schools approximate one to seven hundred. A quarter of our secondary schools have no counselors, and approximately one third of our elementary schools employ only one counselor for every thousand pupils. Statistics about counselor-student ratios in higher education are so confounded by the employment of many part-time counselors that any figures can be misleading. But all the figures, crude as they are, suggest that counseling is not offered to every student, and that some selective factors must be operating in the determination of who gets counseled.

Selective factors have operated in the guidance movement from its inception. Frank Parsons who is generally credited with starting guidance in 1908 was concerned with youth who were about to seek employment, offered nothing for young children, and gave college-going youth only some general exhortation about behavior and good citizenship. All of these he hoped, would result in the development of a socialist state. Anna Reid and Jesse Davis who followed Parsons in the early part of the century were concerned with the guidance of adolescents, the former to be sure that they secured employment which would enhance the profits of business men, and the latter to develop what he called good moral character. John M. Brewer, the first man to hold a prestigious position as a professor of guidance at Harvard (and this writer's first instructor in this field) advocated guidance as a means of making education more realistic for adolescents. When the first group organized in 1913 to promote guidance the members called it the National Vocational Guidance Association and implied by use of that title that counseling would be concerned primarily with persons who needed vocational counseling. In the depression years of the thirties determined efforts were made to help youth to find the kind of employment for which they seemed best fitted. The testing movement which began a few years earlier was designed primarily to offer assistance in that endeavor.

The advent of the progressive education movement in the thirties and early forties brought greater concern with the whole person as well as with his vocational aptitudes. Concern about the early growth and development of individuals resulted in a limited amount of guidance being given for the first time to the pre-adolescent, although counseling had always been, and still is, primarily for youth. The efforts of the veteran's administration after World War II to provide counseling for young adults, and the development of counseling centers in colleges and universities, expanded the age range, but the guidance aspects of the National Defnese Education Act as originally conceived in 1957 were limited to secondary school youth.

Until very recently, then, the persons who got counseled were adolescents and young adults and they were counseled primarily for vocational choice and placement. One didn't get counseled unless one had reached the secondary school or beyond, and even when those stages had been reached one had to be preparing for or seeking employment, talented (by NDEA definitions) or, because a little counseling had been offered in some mental hygiene clinics and correctional institutions, in serious trouble.

Although there has always been some interest in counseling of elementary school children, professional personnel did little about it until the current decade. Wrenn* provided stimulus to elementary school guidance in 1964 by suggesting that counselors could do on a grand scale what had previously been done by school psychologists, family welfare workers, remedial specialists, curriculum consultants, teacher educators and good classroom teachers**. (The wide acceptance of this suggestion illustrates how guidance workers are quick to use the filling station approach,--if they think that something needs repair they rush in to make it whether or not they are qualified or have the equipment to do it). The recent amendment to N.D.E.A. which permits and supports counseling and guidance in the elementary grades has stimulated a movement to place counselors in all schools. Without substantial evidence that they accomplish much there is considerable current pressure to employ them and on the public to pay well for a relatively unproven service. Some of the pressure has been effective and, for the first time in the history of the guidance movement, elementary school children in substantial numbers can be counted among those who get counseled.

It seems clear from the above that the answer to the question of who gets counseled in educational institutions has changed over the years of the development of the guidance movement from the initial concern with job-seeking adolescents to the current concern with elementary school children and young adults in post-high school educational programs. It is often proposed that there should be counseling for all the children of all the people but, in practice, the problem student steal the show. A student is more likely to get counseling, regardless

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* Wrenn, C.G. The Counselor in a Changing World. (The interpretation of Wrenn's statements are those of the writer).

** It is often amusing to note the naivete' of many workers in elementary school counseling. They propose, for example, to add courses and units in occupational information to the curriculum. In doing so they seem to ignore the inability of small children to grasp the complex concepts involved, and fail to realize that good teachers have always done some work in this area at a level that children can understand.

of the professed interest of counselors in all students if he is among the lame, the halt, the blind, the disadvantaged, the maladjusted, the failures, or if he wants to get a scholarship for, and is a college admissions applicant. One sure way to get the attention of the counselor is to be very unusual in some way. And in meeting such demands the counselor tends to become more a salvage and repair man than a worker whose primary concern is for development of all the children.

The question of counseling for what? must of course be related to the question of counseling for whom? and some attention has been paid to the latter question in discussion of the former. There can be no doubt about the need for discussion of career choices of adolescents when they begin to feel grown up, see the end of formal schools coming soon, and what to become less dependent on their families. Recognition that some one-fifth to one quarter of a person's waking hours are spent in employment, and that a considerable proportion of them will continue to be so spent even with the anticipated decrease in length of the work week, convinces some counselors that providing assistance in choice of careers is an important part of their work. It is interesting to note that the new emphasis on the use of the computer in guidance has been directed primarily toward helping students in the processes of career consideration and choice. The old process of fitting the square peg to the square hole is now being attempted electronically.

Since there is an ever-increasing tendency to require it, counselors find that they must be concerned with what is called educational guidance. The process is usually one of considering with a student the choice of electives within the school, or selection of an institution for post-high school training. Since we do not commonly give elementary school children the privilege of selection among school experiences educational guidance is limited largely to secondary and post secondary school youth. This does not, however, prevent elementary school counselors from professing that educational guidance is part of their job. When pressed for a definition of it they usually describe it as remedial work in subject fields.

Although there is little evidence that either career or educational counseling is effective there seems to be rather general acceptance of the belief that these tasks are within a school counselor's legitimate domain if he also works cooperatively with parents and school personnel. When, however, he gets into the realm of what is often called personal counseling the legitimacy of his activities are likely to be seriously questioned. If he claims that he is working in the areas of personal-social adjustment involving such matters as values, emotional balance, or correction of unacceptable social behavior, his troubles begin. Doubts about his proficiency in working in such areas are often raised and considerable skepticism about his effectiveness is often expressed.

At no time in the history of the guidance movement has the matter of personal development been neglected, but emphasis upon it, even to the extent of minimizing by some counselors of concern for career and educational choices, has increased significantly during the past two decades. Even the pioneers of the guidance movement saw the importance of acceptable personal behavior in their concern about career choices even though they tended to be highly moralistic and judgmental about the behavior of their subjects. They recognized, even more than many current workers, that the areas of careers, education, and personal behavior were so interrelated that work in one of the areas involved concern for the others. Currently there has been a strong tendency for many counselors and counselor educators to consider educational and vocational counseling to be too mundane for their attention. Influenced by the psuede-psychologists and would-be psychiatrists who have infiltrated the guidance movement they tend to seek out for counseling only those students whose behavior is highly unusual or bizarre. Borrowing from clinical psychologists whose concern was for persons referred for treatment of abnormal behavior, counselors began to use their concepts, their jargon, and their techniques. They tended to overlook the fact that what might have been effective treatment for neurotic little old ladies of another generation might not be suitable in helping young people in the process of coming of age in America. Although there seems to be fairly general concensus that almost all youth can profit from considering their educational and vocational choices with a counselor, the pressure of numbers often results in the neglect of that activity so that salvage and repair work can be done with the student whose behavior is so unusual that he becomes highly visible in a school situation. The answer, then, to what one gets counseled for depends too often on the counselor-student ratio. It can be an over-riding factor in any counselor's use of his time, but it is not the sole determiner. Some of the others are considered below.

Counselors are not free agents who can decide what they will do regardless of the concerns of those who employ them. As members of a school staff they must serve the community needs (even when trying to change them) as expressed in the objectives of the institution. No counselor is likely to be effective if he continues long at odds with his contemporaries, colleagues and co-workers in an educational enterprise designed to meet the needs of society. If he cannot resolve differences with his best efforts he should withdraw from his position. He cannot be expected to be complaisant about conditions which he thinks are unsatisfactory, but he is not likely to be an effective counselor if his aims differ significantly from the aims of the school in which he works. If, for example, the school in response to community needs, decides that major emphasis will be placed upon the career counseling of the disadvantaged with resultant neglect of the development of the gifted, and the counselor believes that this is an undesirable emphasis, he must express his opinions,

work for a change and, failing to see change, seek another position. Who gets counseled and for what will depend, then, in part on the goals of the institution of which he is a faculty member. Counselors are not institutions in themselves. They are helpers in meeting the goals of the institution. Would that more counselors acted as if this were really true!

Bureaucracy can be a nasty word which implies unreasoning behavior on the part of the members of it. It can also imply a helpful organization of persons united in the service of a worthy cause. Counselors find both implications for who gets counseled in some bureaucratic practices at the state and national levels. When the work of the federal government in guidance became separated from the Vocational Education Division in the forties it provided valuable reports of current practices, offered stimulating suggestions, and supported cooperative efforts to enhance counseling in the schools. With the passage of the National Defense Education Act, however, the suggestions became, by the allocation of funds, mandates for counselor action. The counseling aspect of N.D.E.A. was definitely a manpower utilization concept (to get more capable students into mathematics, science, and the foreign languages) and bureaucratic, arbitrary regulations forced counselors, if their schools were to get funds, to emphasize testing and counseling of the most able.* Although large numbers of counselors worked out of the situation by claiming that they had to work with all students to find the most able, they were forced into making some superb rationalizations and highly questionable interpretations of the intent of the act. Whether the N.D.E.A. had positive or negative consequences (and one does not know since the planned evaluation was not carried through) it served as a good illustration of how public pressures exerted through a bureaucracy determine who got counseled and for what.

A further illustration of how public pressures on counselors influence what they do may be seen in the current emphasis on education of the underprivileged. Disturbing evidence of poverty, unemployment, unequal educational opportunities, and differential treatment of members of minority groups became highly visible, and although the source of such difficulties had their major roots in broader economic and social circumstances, much criticism for the shortcomings is aimed at educational institutions. And, since counselors were commonly considered to be the persons who help students to make wise educational decisions,

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*The author was a member of a group brought together to devise procedures for evaluation of the counseling part of N.D.E.A. It was very clear that appraisal should be expressed in terms of numbers of students so placed.

(including the matter of dropping out of school) the pressure was on counselors to work more with the culturally disadvantaged, underprivileged and handicapped. Work with the talented which had received such high priority in the early sixties has been relegated to a lesser place as distribution of funds and public demands require more attention to the less favored students. The frantic efforts throughout the nation to correct shortcomings in the education of the disadvantaged are reflected in the determination of which students get most counselor attention and what he gets counsel about.

National pressures on what counselors do are often supplemented by state regulations. Most states have counselor certification requirements and, although they are not currently as rigid as they were initially, they do influence who will do the counseling in schools. This, in turn, affects the kind of counseling that is done and to whom it is offered. There is an increasing (and this writer believes an unfortunate) tendency to certify as counselors persons who have not had teaching experience. This change permits persons who have made no serious commitment to education, who do not really know schools, and who are not likely to be accepted by experienced teachers to become counselors. It encourages the recruitment of persons who want to practice an amateur kind of psychiatry and psychotherapy, but who do not want to undertake the long period of study and internship required to become professionals in those fields. Such persons tend to see counseling as a salvage and repair rather than a developmental process and they prefer to counsel only those who are troubled. Guidance people seem always willing to try to fill up what they think are gaps in the performances of others, whether or not they are capable of doing so, and certain kinds of state regulations can foster or inhibit that process. Current trends suggest that they foster it. If they do not change it seems likely that a student will get counseling only if something has gone wrong. The boy who really wants to talk things over with a counselor will not get the chance to do so unless he is among the neurotic, the delinquent, or the potential dropouts.

And state certification can determine in part the kind of counseling that is done. If there is a requirement that the counselor-in-preparation have some credits in group counseling it implies that groups of students can be counseled simultaneously, that sensitivity can be developed readily in the insensitive by being exposed to some of the nonsense offered in T groups, and that confrontation so frequently avoided in counseling the individual will bring about quick development of desirable personality characteristics. Many values may accrue from state certification for counselors including, of course, the exclusion of obviously unfit persons, but their very presence does influence the choice of who gets counseled. The very fact that there is certification for elementary school counselors suggests that counseling, previously reserved for secondary school youth will be offered in pre-high school years.

University programs for counselor education are related to certification requirements since many state departments of education work closely with counselor educators in formulating their requirements. It is axiomatic, therefore, that some of the effects described immediately above will be exerted in counselor education, but the actual program of studies can have influences that go beyond mere course titles. Professors in counselor education departments who have strong beliefs about any or all phases of counselor preparation can by their research, writing, political manipulation, and arrangement for staff in-breeding influence the thinking and activities of the graduates of a counselor education program about the selection and nature of their work with counselees. Thus one counselor education department may graduate students whose chief concern is that all their counselees will be tested and inventoried ad nauseum, ad absurdum while others send out counselors who are primarily listeners and reflectors and givers of unconditional positive regard to the troubled who seek them out. Still others graduate counselors who are, in the current jargon, behavior counselors and who try to see that all their counselees are "conditioned" as well as any dog, monkey, pigeon, or caged kitten. And some even try to draw from several schools of thought so that their graduates are eclectic in their approach. The result is that the kind of counseling offered to whom varies according to the institution in which the counselor did his graduate study. Such variation may or may not be desirable, but the net effect is that who gets counseled and for what in any particular school is highly unpredictable.

Counselors are hired, and presumably supervised by administrators. Their tenure must, in part at least, be determined by the extent to which administrators think that they assist the school to attain its objectives. Their thoughts range from the belief that counselors should do clerical chores, accept disciplinary roles, arrange schedules and substitute for absent teachers to performing as truly professional workers acting as specialists in the areas for which they are prepared. When unsuitable demands are made on them counselors frequently become submissive, congenial flunkies, and counseling becomes a minor part of their activities. Fewer and fewer students get counseled and since time is always limited even the few who are counseled get only cursory attention. Until counselors can define their roles more effectively and provide convincing evidence to administrators about the extent to which they can contribute to the attainment of the school's objectives by doing their real job it seems likely that the who and what of counseling will continue to be contingent partly on administrative fiat.

The literature of counseling has variously been described as illiterate, repetitive, elaboration of the obvious, confused, and confounding. And the language is said to be a semantic jungle. Yet in-service and pre-service counselors are required to study it and it must influence what they do on the job. The availability of books

is determined by the extent to which publishers think they will be "commercial." That term is defined as those books which will sell in large numbers. In order to sell quantities of books the authors must not be critical of others' ideas and practices, and they must not move far beyond what is currently popular. Even if a book seems likely to make a contribution to the field it will not get into print unless a commercial publisher can see the possibility of selling several thousand copies a year. Under these circumstances counselors are encouraged to study some of the most uninspiring literature of any professional field. If their reading does influence whom they counsel and for what, (perhaps a hazardous assumption) commercial textbook publishers exert considerable influence on the work of counselors.

Finally, of course, the characteristics of persons who are permitted to enroll in counselor training programs, regardless of how the factors mentioned above will influence their future development, must affect the work that is done. It is perhaps symbolic of the state of the guidance field that a profession concerned with choice of careers has found no satisfactory way of selecting candidates for degree in its own area. Some misguided efforts to select them on the basis of scores on ridiculous interest inventories and so-called personality tests have produced nothing of value. Other attempts to rate applicants on their responses to naive questions about what they would do if confronted by statements of inadequately described potential counselees have produced only that nothingness which such over-simplified procedures could provide. Multiple-guess testing procedures have been inadequate, interviews have shown little predictive efficiency, and grade-point averages which have been only fairly effective in forecasting course grades are less than adequate in selecting for training those persons who can work well with people. Where no suitable criteria for the selection of persons for training in a profession exists a proportion of the graduates will certainly be unfit for the work it demands. Some of their inadequacies will almost certainly be revealed in their selection of counselees and what they do with them.

Space does not permit detailed consideration of the many other factors which may determine who gets counseled and for what. Much could be written about parental pressures, teachers' attitudes, students' concepts of the role of the counselor, the brevity of the school year and the competition among school personnel for the money available in the school budget. All of these and many other conditions operate in schools so that it is almost impossible to give a general picture of what the offering of a counseling program means and to whom it will be given.

Perhaps better answers to the questions contained in the title of this chapter would be possible if counselors stated their objectives in terms that permitted evaluation and did some evaluation in terms of their stated objectives. Professionals who avoid evaluation of

their work, as guidance counselors usually do, are likely to be uncertain about their purposes, variable in their activities, and extravagant in their claims of accomplishment. If school counselors would recognize that they are helpers in an educational institution rather than institutions in themselves, could really clarify what their roles are as specialists are in a community of specialists, and would provide some evidence that they can make significant contributinns to the attainment of a school's objectives it seems likely that one could begin to recognize what counselors are trying to do, and with whom. As of now the best answers, or the best guesses must be prefaced by the statement, "It all depends."

STRATEGIES IN NEED OF REVISION IN SCHOOL COUNSELING WORK

Marshall P. Sanborn
University of Wisconsin

This year is my twentieth year in education, and my fourteenth in counseling and guidance work. Prior to entering the field of guidance, I was a secondary school teacher in Nebraska and Colorado. My father was a school man before me, and by virtue of my long association with him and his work as well as my own career, I think I can safely claim that I have been a "school man" just about all my life.

I have never operated very happily for very long out of contact with teachers, administrators, and students; and I think perhaps the best years of my professional life have been the past eight years at Wisconsin. We have a research-through-service program here in school counseling and guidance which keeps me in direct contact with high school students, their parents, and their teachers in 40 communities throughout the state. I have watched a sampling of youngsters from each of these communities grow up. I have counseled with them, had conferences with their parents and teachers, followed their progress, and secured their opinions after they graduate from high school.

I have also had the good fortune to be able to teach a service course in counseling and guidance for undergraduate students from many different departments in one of the most exciting and cosmopolitan universities anywhere in the world. Thus I have been able to observe the characteristics and get a feel for the attitudes and beliefs of young people--recent high school graduates--from every corner of the United States, from cities and suburbs, farms and ghettos, the rich and the poor, the radical and the reactionary, the friendly and the hostile, from North, South, East and West.

I have told you all this for two reasons. First, I want you to know that I am a friend of education--committed to it, and part of it. I am committed especially to developing good guidance programs in schools, and to fostering sound understanding and high

hopes for guidance among those whom it may benefit. Second, I want you to know that I have had a fairly long and perhaps unusually broad experience in schools--an experience that has included a great variety of opportunities to make personal observations, plus some systematic research. I have come to some disturbing conclusions about the current state of affairs in school counseling and guidance. I would like to tell you what these conclusions are and why they are important now as crucial issues in school counseling and guidance.

One conclusion I have come to is that, generally speaking, students do not learn to have a very high regard for counseling and guidance as they pass through our public schools. Oh, if we look for complimentary feedback, of course, we can get it; but nevertheless, a very significant number of children--perhaps a significant majority--do not really think much of the counseling and guidance they get in school. I think this is true of youngsters who do not particularly like school, and I think it is true also of those who thrive in school and are deeply invested in their own educational and vocational development.

A dramatic way to illustrate this point, perhaps, is to give you <u>verbatim</u> some comments I heard only a month or two ago from a girl in one of my classes:

> "In our school the counselors had a very specific job to do. If you were getting bad grades, they told you you should do better in school. If you got high test scores, they told you you were smart. If you got low scores, they told you you were dumb. If you were smart, they told you you should go to college. If you were dumb, they told you you should not. If you were absent, they told you you should come to school. If you were pregnant, they told you you should leave school. They told me not to bother about college, so here I am."

These are the remarks of a senior student in the School of Social Work at the University of Wisconsin. She is black. Her home town is St. Louis, Missouri. She was graduated with honors in June. She will soon be going to a career somewhere as a social worker, and I am sorry she is beginning her important work with that kind of an opinion about school counselors. I hope I was able to improve her opinion somewhat, but I am afraid that what she believes is more likely to be influenced by her direct personal experiences with counselors in school than by my lectures and discussions in a University classroom. It will take a lot of doing to undo her attitude.

At the Research and Guidance Laboratory in Madison, we have secured opinions of their school guidance experiences from about

2,000 young people from more than 100 different communities over the past six years. These are all people who were top students in their high schools. Nearly all of them have gone on to college, and it appears that perhaps more than half will earn graduate degrees. They will be leaders. Teaching is by far the most popular career choice of this group. But whether in teaching or in other careers, they will be leaders. The picture they give us of their school guidance experiences is pretty bleak.

Not too long ago, I had an interview with one of these youngsters who had an important personal question he wanted to answer for himself. At the end of our sessions, I suggested that perhaps he could follow through on his question with one of the counselors in the high school he attended. His response was: "Well, I don't want to be derogatory or anything, but frankly there isn't anyone there that I'd want to talk to at this level."

And this, it seems to me, is the way it goes. Not all the time, to be sure. There are many exceptions. But this is the way it goes often enough for me to conclude that the problem is serious and general. I believe the problem exists because school guidance services are not very well understood by children, and because what school guidance services ought to be is not very well illustrated by what many school counselors and other faculty members do.

A second conclusion that I have come to is that teachers do not have a very high regard for guidance people. Again, this is a general remark which is not true for all teachers. But it is true for too many. Guidance people do not enjoy a very good reputation among their teaching peers. I have frequently seen attitudes among teachers ranging from gentle skepticism to sheer contempt. Sometimes these attitudes are held by teachers who were hopeful about guidance only a few short years ago.

Recently a survey was done at the University of Wisconsin to discover attitudes of professors toward counseling and student personnel activities on the campus. Results were analyzed by college and department. The group which showed the lowest opinion was the faculty of the School of Education! The teacher education people! I do not know whether similar statistics could be found in other institutions, but I suspect they could; and I think this is very bad news indeed--news which bodes no good for the relationships future school counselors will be able to establish with future teachers.

This problem has arisen over a period of years. It has accrued from several factors which have gone too long unattended. To a

large extent there has been a lack of understanding among teachers about just what school counselors are supposed to do. Many teachers have had unrealistic expectations for counselors, and counselors have done very little to clear this problem up. So long as counselors fail to accomplish what they are expected to accomplish, they will not enjoy very high regard in an environment where the key criterion is accomplishment. This is true when expectations are realistic, and it is just as true when they are not.

Related to this problem is the fact that in many schools a curious communications system has developed in and around the guidance department. The system is inefficient in the sense that it does not beget action, and it is demoralizing in the sense that it breeds suspicion and mistrust. I believe some misguided notions about the ethic of confidentiality are at the bottom of this, and I want to touch on this later as a crucial issue in guidance.

One of the serious consequences of low teacher attitudes, of course, is that it is difficult to get cooperation from the major source where cooperation is needed--the teachers. Hence, more failure, fewer positive consequences of guidance in the present, and a gloomier outlook for the future.

A third conclusion I have come to is that many school administrators either do not understand or do not agree with the guidance profession about what school counselors ought to be doing. Another possibility is that a good many administrators with very sound notions about guidance are frustrated by what they see going on in their schools--or by what they don't see going on.

Not too long ago, at an executive meeting of the North Central Association of Secondary Schools in Chicago, somebody made a motion to eliminate guidance programs as one of the criteria for NCA approval. The motion was defeated, but the significant fact is that it was made.

At the 1968 national convention of school administrators in San Francisco, so I am told, one of the major speakers tried to convince administrators that guidance programs, as they now exist, ought to be struck from the school curriculum. Usually a major speaker at a large convention will prepare his remarks along lines he thinks his listeners are ready to hear. I have no reason to believe this speaker was an exception.

But the real way to tell what administrators think is to look into the school and see what they allow to be done, or insist should

be done, by their counselor staff.

Last spring I was visiting with a counselor at a large suburban high school near Milwaukee when a secretary from the Principal's Office interrupted our conversation. "Mr. So and So will be gone this afternoon and tomorrow," she said. "He wants you to take over." With that, she left.

The counselor looked at me, shrugged his shoulders, and said, "Well, that's the way it goes." He took over, that afternoon and the following day.

Earlier in the year at a high school not 20 miles away--a big multi-million dollar place with a "North Campus" and a "South Campus"--I saw counselors and secretarial staff in the guidance office collecting and recording attendance reports. The principal argued that when a kid turned up missing, he wanted his counselors to be the first to know about it.

Up in northern Wisconsin, at the end of the first nine weeks last year, the Director of Guidance and his entire professional and clerical staff in a large public school spent a full week making hand corrections on grade report cards. Apparently something went wrong at the computer. Courses the students took and grades they received were all grabled up. There were about two thousand reports to do over by hand, and the counselors did them.

And at another school I know about, it is the counselor's job to see to it that all boys have acceptable hairdos. He chases down boys with long hair and advises them to get it cut. This school has about 30% American Indians in the student body; and as it turn out, mostly it's the Indians who don't wear their hair right. The worm has turned. It used to be Indians who were the "bad guys" and did the scalping. Nowadays we are avenging ourselves, via the school counselor, by order of the administration.

Up to this point I have mentioned negative attitudes of the three principal consumers of counseling and guidance services--students, teachers, and administrators. Not all of them, by any means, but disturbing numbers of them. Their attitudes are not entirely without justification. I have meant to paint a grim picture, and possibly in my zeal to state the problem, I have overstated the case; but I do not think I have. Possibly we could discount the kinds of evidence I have given here as merely isolated examples; but I do not think we should. I do not believe the situation is beyond repair, but I predict that it soon will be unless

guidance people do some solid corrective work and some creative development work on their own profession. If we fail to attend to this problem now, then schools face a serious loss in the future--the loss of all that guidance and counseling might have been, but didn't turn out to be.

So, where do we go from here?

The first and foremost issue we have to face is the question of objectives. We need to get started developing a language to talk in concrete terms about both immediate and long-range goals of guidance.

We have to do this well, because it is by means of an exacting mission statement that we will be able to specify procedures and determine priorities in daily work. And because of the uniqueness of local situations, we cannot depend on state and national organizations to do this task for us. We have to think it through ourselves, in the light of our own community of students and their needs. Let me give you a few examples of statements of objectives for guidance programs. These are not taken from some introductory text book in guidance, but rather from policy manuals and curriculum guides of public school systems. Perhaps in each case it is fair to say that I am not giving you the complete statement of objectives from any school. I have tried to pick out the fundamentals, or key objectives in each statement. Most of the statements I looked at contained lists of "objectives," but on examination it seemed obvious to me that many of the specific items in a list should really be classified as statements about methodology rather than statements about basic objectives. For instance, this one:

> To make available to students and parents educational and occupational information in keeping with the student's interests and abilities.

This statement is fairly concrete, but it is about method and not about objectives. In looking over goal statements from a number of school systems, I found a lot of items of this type, and I concluded that they did not help very much in specifying goals. But let me give you some examples of statements that did seem to be about goals:

From Ithaca, New York:

1. to help each pupil realize his <u>fullest</u> potential so that he may lead a <u>personally satisfying</u> and <u>socially useful</u> life.

This sounds like a very long-range goal. It has several key words in it. What is a childs "fullest potential"? How will you tell when he realizes it? What evidence will you show to others to demonstrate that this goal has been, or is being achieved. What is the criterion for a "personally satisfying" life? Or a "socially useful" life? Can we get agreement on these? They sound good, but can we state in behavioral terms the specific things we will look for to determine the extent to which such objectives are reached? If somebody asked us to give evidence that guidance was worth doing, what would we look at? What would we show others as our evidence? Would this evidence be appropos in any special way to the guidance function as distinct from any other school function?

From Eugene, Oregon:

1. gain an understanding of himself and his relations to other people

2. grow in ability to make wise decisions

3. develop a personality which is capable of adjusting to change, failure, success...

4. develop an adequate set of personal values

5. develop ability to cope with socio-economic, health, and other difficult personal problems.

How does a person behave who has an "understanding of himself and his relation to other people"? What is the criterion to judge whether a decision is wise? What type of "personality" adjusts well to change, failure, success? How can we tell when such a personality has been developed? What is an "adequate" set of personal values? How do we determine who will and who will not cope with socio-economic, health, and other difficult personal problems? What kind of guidance techniques and services shall we provide to develop personalities of the type described?

And one more question. How are any of these objectives differentiated from general school goals? What about them is specifically the province of the guidance department? Philosophically these statements sound fine, but what do they mean <u>operationally</u> for guidance people? It is just a little frightening to contemplate the kinds of expectations that can develop in other people's minds on the basis of goal statements such as these. It makes the job of the biology teacher or the algebra teacher seem relatively simple. He knows exactly what he is supposed to teach, and he knows exacting ways to tell whether children have learned it. All he has left to do is to figure out how to teach it.

We need to do something akin to what the good teacher does--namely to make some exact statements about what we expect to accomplish--not sometime in the distant future, but here and now, this year, with these youngsters, in this school. Next we need to determine exactly how well we accomplish what we set out to do--now, this year, with these youngsters, in this school.

I have heard many times the argument that we ought to drop the term "guidance" and talk just about counseling. I think this idea is a mistake, and the line of reasoning that leads to it is a mistake. Something immediate ought to happen because a counselor is in the school. Even though the general goals of guidance are long-range and difficult to assess, the effect of the school counselor's work ought to be currently visible in terms of specific "goings on" in school which reflect true consideration for long-range goals and for the individual characteristics and needs of students. It is not enough to help school people learn facts about the students, and students to learn about themselves and the environment. Beyond this, counselors must do whatever is necessary to get people to act as if they had learned, or were learning these things. What counselors do beyond counseling is guidance.

Guidance involves getting follow-through action on unique student characteristics identified during appraisal activities and counseling interviews. Every student is unique, and differs somehow from the "norm" in school. The counselor who really sees his students ought to see the need for individualized follow-through in sharp focus. In order to facilitate the development of an unusual child, unusual measures must be taken. It is necessary to get support and cooperation on plans that require people to deviate from ordinary school policies and procedures. To accomplish this adequately, counselors will have to go beyond "adjustment to school" criteria and come to grips with the problem of creating new means whereby individual and general educational needs can be met. They must be less concerned with "helping" students fit in to the existing system and more concerned with developing systems in which unique needs and potentialities of young people are recognized and nourished.

In situations where follow-through is given the priority it should have, both the testimony of students and teachers, and the characteristics of the school program itself will reflect the value of the school counselor's work. This is likely because, in the main, students and teachers, operating within the school program--and sometimes, with the help of the counselor, on the school program--will be the primary functionaries in guidance activities.

A good way to begin would be to start doing evaluative research on guidance in schools. One of the disciplinary features of evaluative research is that you have to specify goals operationally, and then you have to figure out how to secure evidence concerning whether those goals were reached or not. This does not have to be a terribly complex problem insofar as research methodology is concerned. Just say exactly what you hope to do and then check up to see whether it gets done. The math teacher does this, and so does any other teacher. Every semester they evaluate not only the students' work, but also, in a sense, their own. Evaluation helps keep one honest. It also keeps one humble, and open to change in program and technique.

One other comment while we are on the subject of goals. Guidance people are in schools to enhance the development of all youngsters. They cannot do this very well if they spend the bulk of their time doing remedial work with a small percentage of the student population. Remedial problems should be dealt with by remedial specialists. The school counselor is emphatically not a remedial specialist.

The second issue which I think we have to face, and which is closely related to the first, is a question about the kind of logic we use in appraising, advising, counseling, and guiding students. If you have ever had a few lessons in logic, or even if you haven't, perhaps you can criticize this statement:

> All Jewish rabbis have beards.
> That man has a beard.
> That man is a Jewis rabbi.

If you don't like that kind of reasoning, here is why:

1. The basic premise is questionable. At one time in history it may have been true that all rabbis had beards. Whether that is true now is questionable.

2. Even if the premise were true, the conclusion is questionable, since rabbis are not the only persons who have beards.

The fact of the matter is: That man either is a rabbi, or he is not.

Now let us use some "research data" and refine our statement a little bit:

> 80% of all Jewish rabbis have beards; whereas 5% of all other men have beards.
>
> That man has a beard.

Therefore, that man is more likely to be a Jewish rabbi than to be anyone else.

Wrong again! He either is or is not a rabbi. Even if the data we have are exact, we can make no probability statement about whether that one man is a rabbi.

Now let me illustrate some of the reasoning that goes on in guidance:

The typical architect scores thus and so on the Strong Vocational Interest Blank.

That boy scores thus and so on the SVIB

Therefore, that boy would like to be an architect.

Wrong. That boy either would or would not like to be an architect. We cannot legitimately make a probability statement about this boy or any other individual case. The problem is one we are going to encounter whenever we try to use group data to derive answers to individual questions. Group data are very useful for drawing conclusions or making predictions about groups, but they are of very limited value for the counselor who is trying to help an individual make a decision or predict outcomes of himself.

Life Insurance companies can use group data very efficiently to set premium rates. They can predict very accurately what percentage of all healthy men born in 1928 will die before 1972. But they cannot predict which ones--only how many. Therefore, when they set premium rates, they treat all healthy men born in 1928 alike.

University admissions people can predict accurately what percentages of entering freshmen with given test scores and high school records will receive passing marks in the freshman year. In fact, they can do this with fantastic accuracy. But they cannot tell who will succeed and who will fail. Only how many.

Now suppose you are a school counselor and Johnny comes in. He scored 621 on the Verbal and 585 on the math sections of the Scholastic Aptitude Test, and he ranks at the 81st percentile in his graduating class. He wants to know what his "chances" are of succeeding at the University of Nebraska. You have an actuarial table there which shows that among all Nebraska students with test scores and high school ranks like Johnny's 4% got A, 23% got B, 49% got C, 18% got D, and 6% got failing averages last year. What are you going to tell Johnny

about his "chances for success" at Nebraska?

When a counselor uses statistical reasoning, he would do well to use all of it. In making a statistical inference the amount of confidence you have in the inference is a function of the number of degrees of freedom involved. The number of degrees of freedom is equal to the number of observations (cases) in the sample, minus the number of auxiliary values in your calculations which are sample statistics. In the case of Johnny, you have an N of one and at least one obtained score which is assumed to be a "true score" and is, in fact, a sample statistic. Thus your degree of freedom are equal to 1-1, which is zero.

Insofar as I am able to understand the situation, any statistical inference drawn when df=0 is untenable. The prediction will either be correct or incorrect and the statistical data available will in no way add to the amount of confidence we can have about the prediction. This is a fundamental principle of statistical inference and statistical inference is fundamental to the use and interpretation of group tests.

I have said nothing which should be construed as an attack on the validity of tests or of test results. I have been attacking the validity of what we often do and what we are expected to do with tests.

Tests have been given a very high place in the hardware stock of the school counselor. This has been done by counselor educators and counselors themselves, and it has been done by students, parents, and teachers. One of the most common questions children bring to the counselor is:

> Isn't there some kind of test you could give me that would tell me what I should choose for a vocation?. . . (or) whether I should go to college or not?. . . (or) what I am interested in?

For counselors, who are supposed to deal with students one at a time, the answer is no, there isn't any such test. Standardized group test results may be valuable to schools for several reasons, but they are of very limited value for counseling. They can be used for description, but not for prediction.

Why, then, should the counselor be the chief test giver in so many schools? Teachers need test results for evaluation and planning. Curriculum people need them for describing general characteristics of

the school population, for spotting areas of strength and areas in need of investigation or improvement in the overall school program. Reading specialists can use tests to identify remedial needs of pupils. Faculties of various subject matter fields may use them for placement and grouping. Admissions people need them. Administrators can use them. All these school functionaries may legitimately use tests to help make important educational decisions. But tests ought to be only a peripheral activity for counselors.

If the people who could make the most use of group tests would administer them, then counselors could borrow the results for use in explaining and interpreting performances to students. I think this would be desirable because over time it would help change student, teacher, and parent expectations for counselors. Counselors who find themselves spending a lot of time administering group tests should raise a question about this in their own schools.

As for the so-called personality "tests" and interest "tests," which really aren't tests at all, I like the reaction of my friend and colleague Professor John W.M. Rothney, at the University of Wisconsin. "I give my students 21 reasons why they shouldn't use them," he says. "The first 20 are theoretical reasons and the 21st is that they don't work."

Actually, when you use group test results, expectancy tables, or for that matter any similar statistical logic--whether it involves tests or not--you are stereotyping. That's what the computer does when it produces the expectancy table. On the basis of independent variable, it puts individuals into homogeneous classes, then within each class it makes an identical prediction for every individual in the norm group. The criterion value which shows up on the expectancy chart is actually based on the mean criterion value obtained within any class in the norm group. This is simply a mathematical kind of stereotyping. It is the same logical process we use to conclude, before we ever hear him speak, that a man with a black skin will pronounce his words in certain ways. For those whose job it is to classify people into groups, the logic may be o.k. For those who are supposed to identify and deal with the uniqueness of each individual person, it is not. It is not functional, and it is not ethical.

It is time for us to look for more effective ways to get answers to the questions we encounter in guidance work. I think our best bet is to consider who we talk to, what we say, who we listen to, what they say, and to ask ourselves how we can improve the communication system so as to increase the likelihood that guidance work will get done.

This brings us to the third crucial issue which I think should be considered. That issue is the question of confidentiality. I have the feeling that in past years we have placed too much stress on secrecy and not enough on mutuality in school counseling work. In recent times there has been renewed effort in some quarters to get privileged communication for school counselors. I have serious doubts in my own mind whether privileged communication would be an advantage or a disadvantage for school counselors. We need adequate referral resources where privileged communication is available for crisis situations, but our own primary work is emphatically not crisis intervention work, and it should not be construed as such by ourselves or by others.

One of the facts of life about working as a counselor in a school is the fact that our primary clientele are just plain everyday children. Because they are children they are dependent--legally, biologically, and psychologically--on the judgment and behavior of adults who control their life and experience. Whatever happens to the child is the responsibility of adults. This is a legal responsibility, a moral one, and a practical one.

Section B, Item 8, of the Ethical Standards of the American Personnel and Guidance Association, states this:

> "8. In the event that the counselee's condition is such as to require others to assume responsibility for him. . . The (counselor) is expected to report to appropriate responsible authority and to take such other. . . measures as the situation demands."

This item was probably not written with the everyday school child in mind. It is a sensible item, however, in that it requires the counselor to communicate with appropriate persons who will assume responsibility for the counselee when necessary.

At least from a legal standpoint, I think we could say that every school child's "condition is such as to require others to assume responsibility for him." One of these "others" is the counselor himself, but the counselor has the responsibility to communicate systematically and straight forwardly with parents and with other school staff members who share responsibility for the child. Except in crisis cases this kind of communication doesn't happen very often. And when it doesn't happen, I think very little of real substance can be expected to occur as a result of the guidance program. It is a difficult and uncertain business to rear a child who will thrive in a democracy and help democracy thrive. You have to have teamwork to accomplish this, and in the absence of good

communication you can't count on very good teamwork.

Teamwork ought to be a central characteristic of a good school guidance program--parents, teachers, the counselor, and the child, working together to learn more about the child's potentialities and needs, and about forces, factors and opportunities in his environment, so that when any of us have to make decisions or choices which affect the child, they will be enlightened ones in the best interest of the child and his development. And as the child grows, we have to work together to insure that as rapidly as is appropriate, more of the choices and decisions are turned over to him and fewer are retained for ourselves. Thus, in general, guidance ought to be characterized by mutuality, trust, and cooperation--not secrecy. We can accomplish this, if we try, and still maintain the personal privacy that any of us needs from time to time (or that a few persons seem to need a great deal of the time).

If we take a close look at the communications going on in many schools, we can begin to get a general notion of the network we have to deal with. We should also begin to get some good ideas about how guidance people can help improve communication necessary for better education.

What happens in and around your guidance program?

Do teachers commonly say things to you, about children, that they will not say to the children?

Do children often say things to you, about teachers, that they will not say to the teachers?

Do you often say things to teachers, about students, that you will not say to the student?

Do you often say things to students, about teachers, that you will not say to the teachers?

Do you, as a matter of routine, ask teachers for ratings or anecdotals on students that are not revealed to the student? To his parents? To others who are responsible for the students' development?

Do you, as a matter of routine, obtain test scores, or scores on personality inventories or similar instruments which you do not reveal to the student? To his parents? To teachers?

Do you, as a matter of routine, collect or write recommendations for students applying for college or jobs, which recommendations you do not reveal to the student?

A list of questions such as these could go on and on, but perhaps these few are enough for illustrative purposes. If all, or most, or many of the above are questions you would answer "yes" to, then I think the system of communication in your situation is in need of revision. If you answered "yes" to many of the above, you have begun describing a communications network which, in social experiments, has not stood the test of efficiency and participant satisfaction. Research in social psychology has disclosed some basic communications network factors that warrant attention of school guidance people. Three of these are:

1. Patterns of communication have important effects on individual behavior.

2. Individual positions in different patterns influence the extent to which activity is initiated and satisfaction experienced.

3. Positions of centrality impose limits on individual independence and activity.

A network known by social psychologists as the "wheel" is probably characteristic of guidance programs in many schools. The counselor assumes a position at the nucleus, through which messages are funneled. This is expedient for some purposes (such as maintaining secrecy) but it is not very satisfactory for other important tasks in school guidance. It tends to retard straightforward communication among participants, and it is not good for morale among participants. The wheel, or any other pattern where there is a dominant figure leads to a sense of limited independence, and dissatisfaction among group members, and lack of enthusiasm about the coordinate task of the group. On the other hand, in group situations where no member dominates the communications flow, and where information is freely shared, there are better opportunities for <u>all</u> participants to assume responsibility and make satisfactory contributions to the group task.

I have already suggested that good guidance requires a team approach. As such, it requires careful consideration of communications flow. It is the responsibility of school guidance people to try out

various methods of communicating and to foster patterns which are most promising for school situations. Ethics of psychiatrists, lawyers, physicians, and clergymen cannot appropriately be borrowed for school work.

In my dictionary there are two definitions of "confidentiality." One describes a "secret" or "private" situation, and the other describes a situation in which two or more people have confidence in one another. I like the latter definition best for school counseling. What school counselors do ought to help improve the confidence of teachers, students, parents, and counselors in each other. What school counselors do also ought to distribute responsibility for guidance tasks more evenly and appropriately among these people. We need to think through the confidentiality issue again.

I hope I haven't sounded hopeless about school guidance. Many people are, but I am not. I have intended to sound critical, and to raise issues in three areas--our goals, our logic, and our habits and ethics of communication. I think some serious efforts to improve ourselves in these three areas would go a long way toward getting guidance back on the track toward what it ought to be, but hasn't yet become.

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APPENDIX

Presentations at the First Annual University of Wisconsin Department of Counseling and Guidance Summer Workshop

Presentations

(1) "The Counselor and the Curriculum" presented by Virgil Wadleigh, School Superintendent at Clintonville Public Schools and Peter Fiera, School Counselor at Clintonville High School.

Description: Discussion of approaches and techniques which have proven to be useful in implementation of curricular change. Administrative-counselor team approach was described and discussed. Benefits were outlined.

(2) "A Systematic Eclectic Model for Counseling" presented by Dr. Donald Blocher Professor of Educational Psychology at the University of Minnesota.

Description: Development of a systematic model for counselor intervention. An inclusive coverage of this presentation is included in the body of this text.

(3) "The Role of the Counselor Referent to Drugs and Drug Abuse" presented by Michael Spierer, Staff Psychologist at the Dane County Mental Health Center, Madison.

Description: Pharmacological and psychological description of drugs and their impact on users. Viable counseling methodologies were explored and discussed. Referral agencies and procedures were outlined.

(4) "Innovative Counseling Strategies" presented by Mrs. Thelma Daley, school counselor at Overlea Senior High School in Baltimore, Maryland and President of the American School Counselor's Association.

Description: Individual and group methods for helping students develop interpersonal skills, vocational attidues, and self responsibility were explored. Current counseling "games" were utilized.

(5) "The Counselor and the Law" presented by Dr. William C. Whitford, Associate Professor of Law at the University of Wisconsin, Madison.

Description: The legal implications of school counselor activities were presented. Suggestions for appropriate procedures were offerred. Hypothetical cases were utilized to provide materials for discussion.

(6) "Behavioral Counseling Procedures and Techniques" presented by Dr. Richard Dustin, and Dr. Rickey George, Assistant Professors in Education at the University of Missouri.

Description: Development of a behavioral model for counselor intervention. An inclusive coverage of this presentation is included in the body of this text.

(7) "Drug Overindulgence: The Results" presented by Dr. Ralph Baker, Assistant Clinical Director of Hospital Adult Services at Winnebago State Hospital, Winnebago, Wisconsin.

Description: The misuse of drugs and the eventual personal-social consequences formed the core of presentation. Methods of treatment were highlighted. The total impact on the individual and his interpersonal environment were discussed.

(8) "School Law and Its Nuances" presented by Dr. Leroy Peterson, Professor of Educational Administration at the University of Wisconsin, Madison.

Description: The focus of this discussion was on school law and its implications for school counselors. Confidentiality and the maintenance of student records were highlighted.

(9) "Strategies for the Individual Counseling Process" presented by Dr. Angelo V. Boy, Professor of Education at the University of New Hampshire.

Description: Development of a system of strategies designed for intervention in the school setting were offerred. A full description of this presentation can be found in the body of this text.

(10) "Feedback: A Needed Component of Counselor Accountability" presented by Dr. Charles J. Pulvino, Assistant Professor in Counseling and Guidance at the University of Wisconsin, Madison.

Description: The use of communicative feedback in the development of a system of counselor accountability is described. An inclusive coverage of this topic can be found in the body of this text.

(11) "Who Gets Counseled and for What?" presented by Dr. John W.M. Rothney, Professor of Counseling and Guidance at the University of Wisconsin, Madison.

Description: A critical look at the conditions under which the counseled receive counseling. A full treatment of this topic is included within the body of this text.

(12) "Strategies in Need of Revision in School Counseling Work" presented by Marshall P. Sanborn, Professor of Counseling and Guidance at the University of Wisconsin, Madison.

Description: A comprehensive view of current concerns in school counseling. This presentation is included in its entirety in the body of this text.

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2nd annual workshop symposium report

COUNSELOR EDUCATION--A COMPLEMENTARY APPROACH: GROUP COUNSELING WITH IMPLICATIONS FOR VOCATIONAL EDUCATION

Edited by

Charles J. Pulvino
Stuart L. Rubner
University of Wisconsin, Madison

Volume II: 2nd Annual Workshop Symposium Report - Department of Counseling and Guidance, University of Wisconsin, Madison.

1972

PREFACE

The 1972 Counseling and Guidance workshop was the second in a series of three summer programs. This workshop sequence was originated to provide practicing counselors with an opportunity to update their current level of functioning while offering them a means for obtaining a professional life certificate in the State of Wisconsin. The initial program (during the Summer of 1971) focused upon individual counseling processes. A complete description can be found in the symposium report, Summer Workshop in Counseling and Guidance, Volume 1, 1971. Plans for repeating all three modules, in sequential fashion, are presently being made. Since presentations are not dependent upon one another - students can enter during any module, attend three summer sessions, sequentially, and be completely "in phase."

The major emphasis of the second workshop was upon the use of small groups in counseling with particular attention paid to vocational educational materials and programs. Major presentations of topics were made by Dr. Leo Goldman, Mr. Roger Aubrey, Dr. Ronald Fredrickson, Dr. Joanne Harris, and by staff members of the Department of Counseling and Guidance at the University of Wisconsin, Madison. Also, input from local State, County, and University personnel was utilized. In all cases the presentation of materials and ideas was accomplished through an informal lecture-discussion teaching approach. In addition to major presentations small group discussions were arranged to follow up ideas presented. In both lectures and small groups participating counselors were encouraged to pose questions of both a theoretical and practical nature and to develop strategies for implementing ideas into practice in their personal professional settings. The end result appeared to be the sharing of ideas, a better understanding of theoretical principles, and the integration of theory with practice.

The third program in this sequence is being planned for the Summer of 1973. The central theme will be to view counseling services from a systems approach. Within the rubric of a systems approach

specific emphasis will be placed upon administration and supervision of counseling services, the counselor as he relates to the curriculum, the counselor as a social change agent, and the development of research strategies for practicing counselors.

To end this preface without recognizing several persons for helping to make this volume possible would be neglectful on our part. Typing mimeo stencils and duplicating the hundreds of copies of each page of this volume is a major undertaking. Our special thanks for assuming these responsibilities goes to Mary Ellis and Rosemary Hopkins. Our appreciation also, to those who made presentations during the workshop, for they provided a healthy share of food for thought. Finally, we are especially indebted to the workshop "student" participants, for they contributed a very significant number of meaningful ideas, innovations, practices, personal philosophies, and outlooks. Actually, they are the most important people of all, for without them, what workshop?

C. J. P.

S. L. R.

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IMPLICATIONS OF IMAGES FOR FUTURE OF COUNSELING AND GUIDANCE WITHIN THE SCHOOLS

Roger F. Aubrey
Director of Guidance
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Where Are We Now?

Logically, any discussion of images for the future of school counseling and guidance should begin with an accurate and honest description of what now obtains. If we wish to move toward new programs and objectives, it is imperative we first identify current practices and impediments in order to build bridges and establish footholds. Currently, many departments of guidance are in serious difficulty because of this very reason. They are uncertain as to present functioning and powerless in determining their future destiny.

Before characterizing the current status of guidance and counseling, a distinction will be drawn between these terms. In recent years it has been increasingly difficult to differentiate between the areas of guidance and counseling. In fact, these terms are used so interchangeably, that in the view of many, there really is no difference between guidance and counseling.

In the remarks that follow, an attempt will be made to distinguish the words guidance and counseling. Counseling will be used to describe that skill in interpersonal relations primarily designed to help students in individual and group settings. Counseling is therefore a method or technique mastered by the counselor and designed to assist students with problems and concerns related to school and personal growth.

Guidance, as contrasted with counseling, is broader, more inclusive, programmatic, and quite frequently an administrative framework for organizing a number of similar, but unrelated disciplines. Guidance in one sense is that collection of services, skills, and specialists intended to supplement the regular school instructional program. Included among these services would be such activities as testing, placement, orientation, referral, coordination, consultation, and obviously counseling. This view of guidance places the role and function of counselors outside the formal curriculum and assumes the main business of school is conducted by teachers and subject-matter disciplines. Counseling is a service, and guidance as a program, are each viewed as ancillary to the process of education.

Another view of guidance could credit this area with certain learnings and experiences complementary to the schools regular curricular offerings. This view could also classify counseling as but one skill or technique under the general heading of guidance. Guidance in this scheme would consist of those organized, regularized, and systematized programs based on the developmental needs and concerns of students. Guidance would assume a leadership role in establishing an instructional base for that area of knowledge referred to as affective, psychological,or personal-social development. Counseling would be seen as but one of many methods for the implementation of these programs. A key distinction therefore between guidance and counseling is one of service orientation versus programmatic expansion.

To return to where are we now, consider for a moment the following list of attributes of current guidance operations. I say operations, because few guidance programs now exist in our schools.

Characteristics of Current Guidance Operations

1. Diffuse, scattered, and without focus or impact.
2. Isolated from the mainstream of school and community.
3. Passive, reactive, and service-oriented; little or no risk taking.
4. Contacts with students are fleeting and ephemeral.
5. Administratively controlled and centered.
6. Atheoretical, devoid of substance and direction.
7. Individually focused and student centered.
8. A single skill orientation (e.g., counseling) lacking alternative intervention postures.
9. Overly role conscious with inadequate emphasis on functions and tasks.
10. Visibility poor, impact doubtful, and accountability weak.
11. Overextended in promises and expectations to many audiences in all areas.
12. Influence on total school-community slight at best.
13. Training, state standards, and in-school preparation frequently poor.

These assertions about current guidance operations may appear harsh and unwarranted. They certainly are not intended to indict counselors or our profession. However, in my judgment they point to some key factors in the publics present disillusionment of guidance and counseling. There is no denying that in their eyes many of us are seen as weak, impotent and ineffective.

Look back for a moment and skim the list of characteristics describing current guidance operations. How many carry active verbs or descriptions of outreach and action-oriented programs? How many evoke the image of a counselor out of his office, in the cafeteria and playgrounds, in nearby neighborhoods and communities, seeing students and parents afternoons and evenings, supporting students in unpopular causes,

working with local clubs and organizations, searching for resources and services for students outside the school, organizing and chairing task forces and committees within the school, training teachers and students to help those in need, working with teachers in the classroom as co-leaders of units and topics of discussion, and so on?

I would suggest to you that the terms passive, reactive, submissive, isolated, conservative, aloof, distant, and dependent best describe many present counselors. Like the cartoon Underdog, we are humble and lovable, but not a dynamic and assertive force in the schools. We take few risks, avoid major confrontations, and patiently wait for the inevitable steady stream of clients we serve.

This is obviously not an optimistic or pleasing characterization of current guidance operations. On the other hand, this unflattering picture parallels many analyses current school boards and superintendents have conducted by themselves. Guidance is in trouble nation-wide and it behooves us to discover some of the root causes behind the current disenchantment with guidance and school counselors. Has our role performance really been that bad? Have we been guilty of promising more than we can deliver? Is the expectation of our various publics simply overwhelming and insatiable? Has our training and preparation been inadequate and unrealistic? Do we lack the conceptual and behavioral skills to succeed in our work? What should we be doing?

Rather than rehash past history, perhaps the answers to some of these questions might arise from a consideration of future directionality. Consider the following characteristics of what future guidance programs might incorporate. Are these worthy and attainable objectives?

Characteristics of Future Guidance Programs

1. Concentration of time and energy on limited and attainable goals, giving up many of our present responsibilities (e.g., scheduling, testing).

2. Fewer one-to-one contacts with students, especially those with pathological implications.

3. Little time spent on "servicing individual students," a great deal of time spent on developing programs for specific clusters of students.

4. Closer and more collaborative efforts with teachers.

5. Greater contact, dialogue, and cooperative projects with parents and adults in the community.

6. Increased use of group skills in all areas.

7. The development and establishment of a curriculum for guidance at key developmental levels from kindergarten through grade twelve.

8. Regularly scheduled curricular time for guidance programs led by counselors during the school day.

9. Close and intimate ties with universities for in-service training, program development, training of future counselors and aides, evaluation and assessment of guidance programs.

10. More emphasis on sociological factors influencing student development, less reliance on psychological-pathological elements.

11. Clearly articulated intervention strategies for counselors, less crisis and emergency counseling.

12. Greater risk-taking and school leadership from counselors.

13. Use of students and community volunteers as counselor aides.

These thirteen characteristics of future guidance programs are probably neither shocking nor revolutionary. Many of these characteristics are features of current guidance programs, probably in your own schools. Others, I am sure, are recommendations counselor educators have been making for some time. However, it would be a mistake to think this image of guidance and counseling is but a slight shift from present practices. The image I am suggesting would require a major reorientation from counselors in the field and would certainly challenge the value system of most counselors.

Guidance for Personal Development

If you would contrast for a moment the major attributes I have ascribed to present and future guidance and counseling images, the behavior of the counselor in each instance would provide striking differences. In the present image, the counselor is usually sequestered in a private office, complete with desk, filing cabinet, telephone and one or two chairs. Students see counselors voluntarily or by summons and their appearance in the counselor's office is usually regulated by a daily sign-up sheet or a secretary monitoring appointments. If the right antiseptic smell were present, you could well be in your favorite dentist's office. Be it an absessed tooth or teeth cleaning job, you must get past the secretary and appointment book.

In the future image, the counselor is not tied down or restricted by an office or rigid appointment schedule. In fact, the counselor is probably in an office or seeing individual students less than one-third of the time. The majority of the time would find the counselor in classrooms, playgrounds, community agencies, student homes, clinics, snackbars and pizza parlors, cafeterias and student lounges, teacher and administrative meetings, local business establishments and employment

agencies, and so on. The future image reflects that of a highly mobile, socially aggressive, well organized and activistic individual.

The present counselor is trapped and ensnared but eventually accepts the educational system. This counselor may occasionally question the structure, organization and curriculum of the school, but he or she rarely translates these questions into constructive reformulations of current practices. By accepting and/or acquiescing, the present counselor sanctions the system.

The future counselor attempts to make the educational system responsive and adaptive to students. This counselor does not merely "buck the system," this counselor works to effect innovation and change in the institution. Change may come from the introduction of new ideas and technologies, local research and feedback from students and parents, pressure from parents and other powerful groups mounted by counselors, cooperative endeavors with students and/or teachers. The future counselor is a risk taker and is willing to suggest major changes in the system if it is unresponsive or miseducative to students.

The present counselor is service-oriented and functions as if the guidance suite were a minature mental health clinic. Students are referred to as clients or counselees and those who refer themselves voluntarily are especially prized. Because the counselor is always summoning students or waiting for self-referrals, he or she rarely leaves the guidance area. Crisis and emergencies are common to the present counselor and scant time is left for preventive work.

The future counselor spends the bulk of his or her time in developing and implementing programs furthering the personal growth of students. Because personal growth is intimately intermeshed within a social context, the future counselor usually works with groups. Individual counseling is not ignored but a diagnostic-prescriptive rationale must justify any large investment in this area.

The personal development of students has been advocated by such guidance figures as Chris Kehas, David Tiedeman, Frank Field, Marty Katz, Ralph Mosher, and Norman Sprinthall. In a somewhat similar vein, developmental guidance has been advanced by such writers as Gail Farwell, Herman Peters, Dan Blocher, George Gazda, and others. A central theme permeating the works of all of these writers has been the concept that guidance should not be solely an adjunct to the educational structure or simply an accomodator to socially acceptable modes of behavior. Rather, guidance should borrow heavily from the wealth of knowledge emanating from the behavioral sciences and counselors should apply this knowledge to their work with students. Personal development should not be left to happenstance or the fortuitous contact of student and adult.

In considering the scope and magnitude of this concern, consider the following statement by Chris Kehas (In Shertzer and Stone, Introduction to Guidance: Selected Readings, Boston: Houghton Mifflin, 1970,

p. 60): "Only when intellectual development is interferred with do the personal and social aspects of human development receive attention from school personnel. Involvement with the personal growth of each individual - unrelated to the subject matter of academic disciplines - has not been institutionalized as a basic concern of the public school. No facet or portion of education today is primarily and systematically concerned with the personal development of each individual."

Now one thing should be clear from Kehas' statement and the position I am placing before you; guidance for personal development is not being advocated in order to deal with the drug problem, unemployment, delinquency, school drop-outs, underachievement and serious behavioral problems among students. Granted, all of us must also deal with these issues, and more. However, how long can we plug the dike? How successful have we been in the past in holding back the floodwater? Must we always wait until emergencies and crises pound on our door? Have any of us really given the majority of our time and energy to preventive and developmental guidance? How would we proceed if this approach were attempted?

The Transition from Services to Programs

In switching from an individualistic, problematic, and crisis approach to a planned and programmatic system, some of the following steps would be necessary:

A. Redistribution and allocation of present responsibilities (e.g., scheduling, testing).

B. Identification of population group(s) for concentration of time and effort (e.g., kindergarten mothers and teachers, obese pre-adolescents, ethnic groups, potential drop-outs, all high school freshmen, social studies teachers).

C. Planning and preparation of programs for these groups.

D. Development of intervention strategies and skills for implementation of selected areas and groups (e.g., group counseling, training of aides, computer know-how, simulation exercises).

E. Establishing support and help in implementing programs (e.g., parents, teachers, administrators, students, community resources).

F. Implementation and initial evaluation of program.

G. Completion and/or fulfillment of program with final evaluation, feedback, and program modification or termination.

The transition from a counseling service point of view to that of guidance as a series of programmatic interventions, is indeed a difficult step. Although school administrators and teachers present major problems in effecting such a change, I have found counselors the most resistant group to this suggestion. Unfortunately, the group most likely to benefit from such a change is rarely consulted in these matters. I am obviously referring here to students and the possible benefits that might accrue to them by programs tailored to their needs and developmental concerns.

In the final analysis, counselors must decide just how much influence and voice they wish within the educational setting. If our hopes and aspirations for students are ambitious and idealistic, we must be appalled at our current impact on the total educational process. On the other hand, if we view ourselves as repairmen, patching up the weaknesses in the system, we may be content with our current performance. The choice is not an easy one, for the direction I am suggesting requires movement into previously uncharted waters. However, I would hope that a pioneering effort in this area is far more satisfactory than a continuation of the status quo. For we in guidance and counseling, the status quo could well be the signal of our demise. Let us work together for a more worthy goal.

Ronald H. Fredrickson
University of Massachusetts

Definition and Purpose

A Supportive Resource Team is a small task oriented group of individuals who with a trained leader act together as supportive resource team to help each other to gain self-confidence and expand human potential. The Supportive Resource Team (SRT) is conceived as useful for children, youth and adults in educationally oriented settings. It is not offered as a therapeutic process for individuals with personality disorders or persons with serious inter-personal problems. Rather SRT provides an opportunity for growth and development among individuals who are seeking ways to acquire greater knowledge of and confidence in themselves, and make plans to achieve higher levels of personal functioning.

The Supportive Resource Team provides a pool of human resources from which an individual can recognize his personal strengths, find out what strengths others see in him, identify goals he would like to achieve and establish realistic plans to attain them. The purpose of the SRT is also to aid in the acquisition of communication and feedback skills which are for the purpose of assisting others in building a positive and constructive self-concept.

One of our specific concerns has been with low risk-taking students. Students who have the ability to perform at certain levels of achievement but fail to do so because seemingly they lack confidence and initiative even to try. In order to increase confidence or assert positive attributes, the individual must be aware of who he is, how he is seen by others, what person he would like to become, and then begin to bridge these perceptions of self into a more unified and consistent whole. This bridging involves action on the part of the individual in setting specific goals for himself and gaining the resources to achieve them.

Psychological and Philosophical Assumptions

A number of assumptions form the foundation of the procedures of the Supportive Resource Team.

1. To grow and develop one's potential, the individual needs external support from others.

2. Our society is perceived as an aggressive competitive society in which personal strength is measured in terms of the proportion who fail or are weak.

3. Feedback from others is too often evaluatory and of a "put-down" variety.

4. A person's inability to change and develop his potential is often because he lacks the decision-making resources and the know-how of implementation.

5. A person's desire to achieve and show initiative is limited by his fear of failure.

6. A congruent concept of self between the real and the ideal is an important prerequisite for full development of potential.

7. Active supportive behavior toward others is learned and not a natural product of our society with mass communication systems, and proscriptive living which too often encourages alienation and passivity.

8. Individuals who participate as members of a Supportive Resource Team in gaining congruency of self, supportive communication skills, goal setting, awareness of those resources to achieve those goals will become a more positive and constructive person and better able to achieve his full potential.

Explanation of Assumptions

The trend in modern school systems toward individualized instruction places considerable responsibility on the student for his own personal behavior and progress.

Students in both the conventional and non-traditional systems often feel that they have not found in their schools a climate of success. Time after time they have failed to accomplish the goals set for them by the teacher and the curriculum. With every failure they believe less and less in their ability to gain the respect of the teacher and peers, parents, and even themselves.

In order for a person to take the responsibility not only for his school life but his social existence and career, he must believe in himself and believe he has the ability to make decisions. If the student does not have varied opportunities to make choices of curriculum, extra-curricular activity, and the like, he will not gain the

confidence to risk making his own decisions and carrying out his own plans. He will wait for things to happen to him, putting up his defenses against scarring comments, hoping wishfully for acceptance but not daring to decide to risk reaching out for positive reinforcing experiences. Coupled with the opportunity must be the realization that even if his choice is not the correct one, the result will not be a devastating experience.

Needs. An individual will have difficulty making decisions about himself unless he has attained in some manner, the four personal needs.

Needs. Recognition of his individual value to the world and where he is a part of that world. Each person in our society has a need for a predictive, positive evaluation of himself; self-esteem and the esteem of others. Satisfaction of the self-esteem need leads to feelings of worth; of being useful and necessary in the world. Thwarting of these needs produces feelings of inferiority, weakness and helplessness.

Competence. The image of himself as a person able to cope with life; to solve problems that he meets and to accept things that he cannot change. A child or adult may develop the attitude that he cannot negotiate the situations that face him. Parents or siblings may have always cleared the problems from his path. An energetic friend or domineering wife may have always done it better than he could. Only by being successful in solving his own problems will the person develop confidence in his ability. Then he will take the risk of tackling the next one.

Some factors in life cannot be changed. They are physical facts; the size of your feet, your mother's age, the color of your skin. An attitude of acceptance of these things may even open the door to feelings of pride in one's own competence.

Expression. The freedom to express himself verbally and nonverbally. Knowing that he can operate successfully in a given situation may not be enough if one does not have the tools to express his knowledge and feelings. Verbal and nonverbal skills in communicating his thought to others is also essential. Feedback has come to mean "Yes, I know what you are feeling. Can I help you with it?" Expression of positive criticism takes sensitivity and skill. Both can be learned.

Autonomy. Developing sense of worth, coping ability, and ability to express leads him to open successive doors each with more alternatives for him. As he discovers the alternatives that give him the greatest feelings of satisfaction, he becomes more autonomous, more capable of making choices and controlling his future. With autonomy comes greater willingness to support others and the recognition of the necessity of mutual support.

It is the satisfaction of these four needs which gives meaning to the procedures in the Supportive Resource Team. A person who feels worthy without having to defend his actions before he acts, feels confident that he will be able to cope with situations he will have to face in the future. He begins to express himself and gain satisfaction with himself. Free from anxiety, the individual has greater opportunity to develop his talents to the fullest. This same individual gains autonomy by expanding his alternatives. He becomes aware of the factors which influence him and in this way gains autonomy. The student, for example, who hesitates to risk an effort, who holds back, is at a decided disadvantage. First, without confidence in himself, the non-achieving child stalls at making a decision, to avoid the failure he believes will result no matter what course of action or procedures he takes.

Satisfaction of basic needs allows the individual to look forward to gratifying further needs. He will feel secure and motivated to reach out and meet more intrinsic needs such as worth and autonomy.

Personality grows only as it changes. A way of life changes only as that personality grows. A healthy individual desires more in life than gratification of basic drives. He is curious to know about things, he wants to master his environment, and being incurably social he wants to leave his mark on society. Motivation to grow and change will appear only if the climate internally and externally is compatible.

In the Supportive Resource Team, we support the positive and growing behavior and ignore the negative and withdrawal behavior, unless help in specific areas is requested by the individual.

We call it prizing, accepting, or trust. The SRT facilitator will accept satisfaction and achievement as well as fear and hesitation and tense behavior if the participant approaches a problem. Erratic behavior and apathy will be understood but not by design reinforced. A sensitive, empathic climate will be psychologically supportive so that each individual may feel safe in working out a constructive assessment of himself and ways to reach new goals.

The non-threatening climate will alleviate tension and anxiety. Energy and creativity in addition to intelligence and motivation are essential to learning. A highly anxious person may be rigid and non-creative. Energy that might be used for learning gets used up in coping with other non-productive concerns.

Children as well as adults seek to be respected and worthy of respect. The SRT setting will provide clues which tell the child that he is valued for what he is and can become. If an individual cannot hope to gain the support of the group, he feels he is doomed to failure. However, because he wants success he will attempt to

suppress inappropriate behavior. The group's respect, however, if genuine, will in turn motivate him to achieve more of his potential.

Psychologists and sociologists are aware of the influence of peer associations. In contemporary times, there have been reported reactions to group processes in which the leader or dominant members of the group establishes a new norm for disclosures and probings which in some cases for many individuals establishes a more destructive norm than what is found outside of the group. SRT does not aim to draw out from the individual disclosures or confessions but seeks to establish a supportive atmosphere where team members may talk about their strengths and build on them new goals and intermediate behaviors.

Glasser (1969) has pointed out the negative impact of the school where students perceive it as a place to risk failure rather than to gain success and fulfillment. He calls for the design of an atmosphere where students find not contrived success but genuine accomplishment of realistic goals. The purpose of a SRT is to aid in developing an experience where a small team of individuals might begin to restore their belief in themselves and their ability to help others in the same way.

The importance of congruence of real and ideal self has been proposed by Carl Rogers (1967) as an essential step for an integrated and fully functioning person. The facilitating conditions for learning of acceptance, positive regard, empathy are a part of the rationale for SRT. However, in a SRT acceptance is not a neutral construct but rather oriented toward an individual's strengths. An individual may wish to discuss his weaknesses with the Supportive Resource Team but it is not encouraged or solicited.

Social Darwinianism is still very much alive in our society, particularly our world of work. Cost conscious managers, foremen, and boards of directors must seek the best person they can to perform the required tasks. The pressure of competition between men in a company or a department to rise to the top or gain quick salary increments is often acute and part of our society's ethos. Employees, whether they be classroom teachers, executive accountants, or skill tradesmen find it is not prudent to discuss their weaknesses with their employer or fellow employees lest it someday be used against them in either a direct or subtle way. The resultant feelings are often of loneliness and hesitancy to express initiative or risk failure. The need for support to grow and change is too often not satisfied by normal family or friend relationships, so means of escape are sought, some of which are highly destructive such as alcohol and drugs.

One of the overlooked aspects of many group approaches to solving interpersonal relations is the potential for members of a group to serve as resource persons in developing the means to help an

individual. This is the main reason why we call our approach a resource team. Members serve as resources for each other and a commitment is built to work together as a team.

Specific Objectives of the Supportive Resource Team

A number of specific objectives can be enumerated which might also be classified as enabling objectives. These objectives are intermediary objectives of the Supportive Resource Team in eventual attainment of a realistic and constructive concept of self and fulfillment of individual potential.

Self-concept is influenced by many different factors. The three that have been chosen as important for the SRT are:

1. Subjective Perception of Self - the way we see ourselves (whether reality or fantasy based).

2. Other's Perception of Self - the way we are seen by others.

3. Desired Perception of Self - the way we would like to see ourselves and would like others to see us.

The objectives of the SRT are:

1. To perceive others more positively.

2. To perceive ourselves more realistically.

3. To perceive ourselves more positively.

4. To work toward closure (consistency) between real self and projected self.

5. To encourage human potential growth. To become closer to his desired self-image (concept).

6. To accept more fully what he is in reality - human, fallible and having potential for growth.

Two different types of skills are needed. One of these skills is in communication, both verbal and nonverbal; the other is what we call negotiation.

Communication. Most often the low risk-takers are timid, and hesitant in expressing themselves verbally. Communication, a learned skill, which requires nourishment like any other skill, can be facilitated in the Supportive Resource Team. Activities to help students develop better listening, feedback, and attending skills are incorporated in SRT experiences. These listening skills will be supportive

to other members of the group and will help to evoke more original, imaginative, and therefore, self-supportive responses from all members of SRT. "In short, we communicate to influence - to effect with intent (Berlo, 1960)."

The communication objectives would be:

1. To sharpen listening, attending skills.

2. To improve each member's ability to express himself in a positive and more imaginative way.

3. To learn how to give constructive, relevant feedback.

4. To learn to accept feedback most effectively.

5. To sharpen perception of nonverbal feedback.

Negotiation. Is the second important skill to be developed and used in the Supportive Resource Team. The key concepts associated with negotiation are responsibility, self-determination, and self-assertion. Responsibility for our own actions and lives; self-determination in the direction an individual wants his life to go; and self-assertion to obtain and maintain our goals and objectives.

There are three categories of negotiation in the SRT program.

1. Negotiation with self.

2. Negotiation with others.

3. Negotiation with society.

The individual must learn to negotiate with himself - to develop his own set of priorities, to accept and reject values, to establish criteria for evaluating life experiences, and learn how to deal with critics within himself, especially the ones who retard his personal growth and limit his experimentation and taking of risks.

The individual must also learn to negotiate his own set of priorities and values with the significant others in his life. The simple statement of "No" to a routine question is no simple task at times. Daily, other people enter our thoughts, feelings, and dreams. They enter our lives and they leave us in the "alone" state, somewhat changed and not always to our liking. It is from this "alone" state that SRT fortifies an individual to negotiate his own growth and development and understand and accept his interdependence with others.

Society need not be as repressive but rather a force with which we negotiate the satisfaction of certain needs which only society can

provide. The individual is seen as part of that society with potential to become and be an instrumental and responsible part of it. The individual must learn to negotiate his role and responsibility part in that society. This role should not be left to fate or in the hands of a whimsical agent of society.

Objectives of negotiating activities would include:

1. To assume responsibility for the self - the actions and direction it takes.

2. To "get in touch with" the critic within the self and learn to negotiate or deal with that negative perspective.

3. To begin developing a self-determination process within the self, setting goals and directions, meeting desires and needs.

4. To begin asserting the self in order to make manifest those goals, to fulfill those needs.

5. To utilize all the skills learned to srengthen the improved self-concept to negotiate with any outside negative force.

6. To clarify personal values and criteria for being, acting, and reacting.

7. To develop decision-making skills.

8. To develop a pattern for alternative searches.

9. To define and redefine, when necessary, the boundaries and capabilities of self in negotiating, determining, asserting.

10. To set goals realistically (but not too modestly).

Feedback language includes a number of descriptive adjectives. The more varied and rich the language is in terms of adjectives which can be used in communicating with other members of the group the more potential impact that person might have. A list of adjectives has been prepared which might be used to expand descriptive vocabulary of SRT participants.

It is recognized that adjectives are not equal in terms of the perception by the listener or for the person for whom they are intended. In Figure 1 a hierarchy is suggested as adjectives may be arranged in a general to specific continuum. As the adjective becomes more specific it gains in potential impact for either positive or negative action. Most individuals in an SRT team start out using the adjectives in the outer rings of the circle and are more general in their comments and descriptions. As they become more skilled in communications and familiar with a broad adjective vocabulary, they become more specific in their positive comments.

SUPPORTIVE RESOURCE TEAM

THEORETICAL STRUCTURE FOR ADJECTIVES

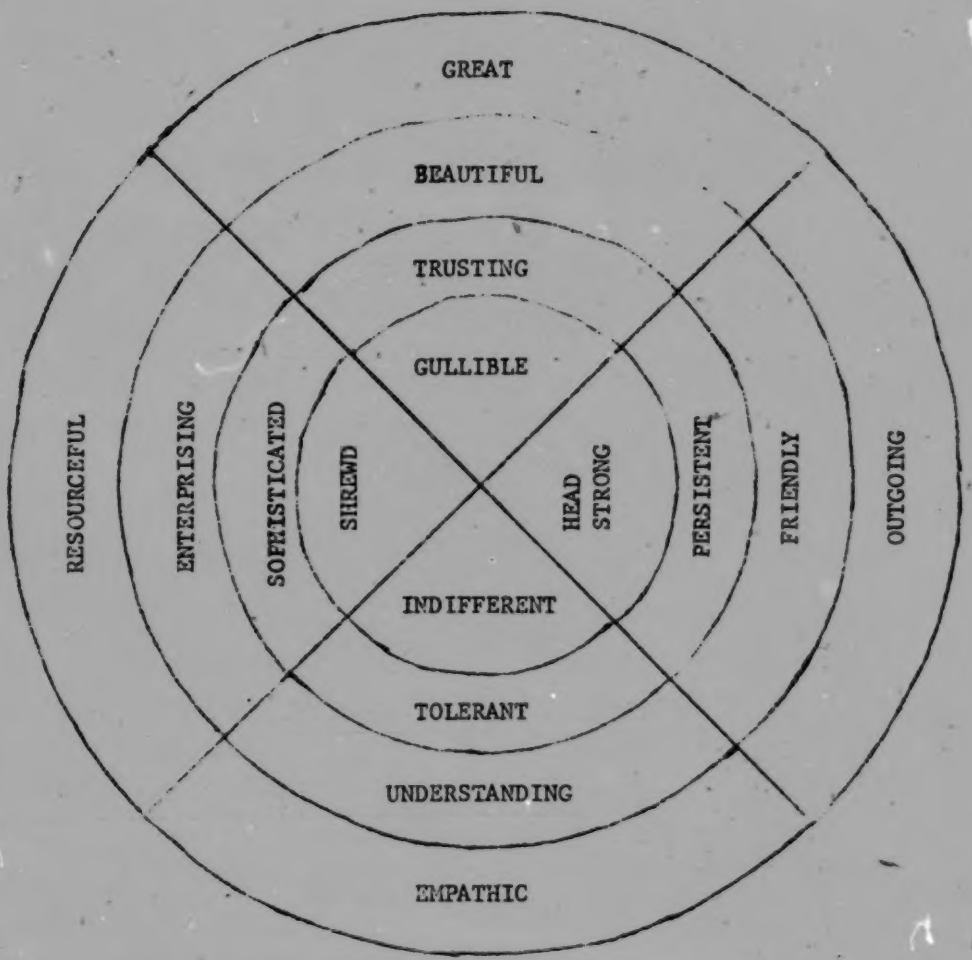

Figure 1

SUPPORT RESOURCE TEAM ADJECTIVES

1. Alert
2. Acquisitive
3. Natural
4. Affectionate
5. Ambitious
6. Analytical
7. Humble
8. Assertive
9. Modest
10. Cautious
11. Charming
12. Cheerful
13. Clear-thinking
14. Clever
15. Conscientious
16. Constructive
17. Contented
18. Cooperative
19. Courageous
20. Curious
21. Idealistic
22. Debonair
23. Decisive
24. Easygoing
25. Eloquent
26. Enterprising
27. Enthusiastic
28. Excitable
29. Fair-minded
30. Formal
31. Frank
32. Friendly
33. Generous
34. Genial
35. Grateful
36. Gentle-tempered
37. Hearty
38. Honest
39. Imaginative
40. Independent
41. Inhibited
42. Intuitive
43. Introspective
44. Loyal
45. Mature
46. Reasonable
47. Tolerant
48. Optimistic
49. Original
50. Patient
51. Painstaking
52. Persevering
53. Planful
54. Poised
55. Polished
56. Practical
57. Reliable
58. Reserved
59. Resilient
60. Responsive
61. Self-confident
62. Self-controlled
63. Sensitive
64. Serious
65. Sociable
66. Shy
67. Self-sufficient
68. Sophisticated
69. Stable Emotionally
70. Subjective
71. Suggestible
72. Tactful
73. Talkative
74. Temperate
75. Thoughtful
76. Trustful
77. Versatile
78. Vivacious
79. Witty
80. Wise

Goal Setting and Negotiating Implementation

Each individual in the group should be willing to discuss with the group honestly and willingly, one aspect of behavior he wishes to modify. Once the individual goal has been identified, the group members can then review that desired change in behavior in the individual in terms of how they perceive the individual to be presently reacting. If the group affirms the need for change they are then able to assist in the identification of a group goal. Once this has been established, individual members can all become resource persons as they contribute supportive, nonthreatening feedback which reinforces the positive or desirable responses.

Preschool or lower elementary age children may not be able to participate in quite the same manner. Probing questions may result in revealing fears or anxieties which the group leader could then generalize for the entire group.

Various games or exercises could be used depending on the need for growth in trust, assertive behavior, understanding of self, understanding of others, and value clarification.

Any individual has the power to negotiate for alternative techniques or goals. If an agreement cannot be reached, if the group desired goal conflicts with an individual goal, an individual has the option to make a re-evaluation and readjustment in terms of self, or may contract to "sit out" that particular session.

The individual must be a willing member who feels comfortable in a group. If he does not possess the desire to learn more about self or group processes it might be suggested that he "sit" out a few sessions. It should be understood that the primary purpose of the group is to help group members who may be low risk takers gain greater confidence in themselves. Thus, rather than "frighten off" the very members the supportive team was organized for, the first session must especially set the tone for the succeeding sessions. "When an atmosphere of mutual exploration of creative expression can be established, wherein the whole group is attempting to support the creative efforts of each, remarkable progress can be made (Schutz, 1967)."

It should be kept in mind that the principal goal of this type of group is to alleviate each individual's anxiety while strengthening his "ego" via healthy relationships with other members in the group. Also, another goal is to help the individual achieve a better adaptation to reality and to his life demands.

Procedures

Techniques of working in a SRT group are not completely separate or discrete from other types of social interaction, but are blended or combined to specifically relate to supportive behavior.

The techniques are ways of expressing and communicating acceptance, worth, competence, autonomy, and letting the individual know that the supportive approach is attempting to develop a concurrent internal frame of reference through thinking, expressing and exploring.

Size. In determining the size of the group, the leader must consider the age, setting and intended methods of operation. Most successful SRT groups tend to range in size from eight to ten members. A group leader, depending upon his skill, practice, and experience, may be able to work with larger groups. Groups should be heterogeneous according to academic ability whenever possible to avoid labeling of any group. However, the groups appear to work best when homogeneous according to age, grade level, and normal behavior patterns.

Setting. Physical arrangement plays an important part in establishing a supportive feeling within the SRT group. Supportive

techniques may call for physical activity and movement. In some cases physical education facilities or outdoor recess grounds may be utilized.

The leader may want to select a small classroom where there are as few distractions as possible. The counselor's office or guidance conference room may create a more relaxed and confined atmosphere than in a larger room.

A circular seating arrangement has the advantage of permitting every member to see every other member and the leader, and it reinforces feelings of security, comfort, hopefulness, and confidence. These are the feelings Truax (1961) found to produce greater concreteness of expression of feelings, experiences, and empathic understanding of each other and cooperatively and mutually help group spirits, genuineness, cohesiveness and ego involvement (Truax, 1968). The circle is a concrete expression of the distance at which members will interact and have supportive feeling toward members of the SRT group.

Time. The frequency of meetings, the length of each session, and the number of sessions to be held depends on the leader and the enumerated goals.

Individual sessions can range anywhere from 15 minutes to an hour. Elementary school children may meet for a half-hour session twice a week. High school students and adults might meet for an hour, two days a week.

"In a recent study with college freshmen noticeable differences were apparent in the group that met twice weekly when they were compared with the group that met once a week. The group which met more often explored more problems, interacted a great deal more, and seemed to derive more personal satisfaction from the counseling experience. There does not, however, seem to be much supporting evidence that increased frequency of meetings or counseling over a prolonged period will necessarily produce more'change'."* The role of the counselor is to be supporting, both to the individual and to the group process as it develops. He is to be knowledgeable in those activities and exercises which are related to the learning experiences of his particular SRT group. Graduate training in the behavioral sciences with a focus on counseling is necessary. He should be comfortable in his role as facilitator and confident in his ability to manage the group. "Gazda describes the role of the counselor in a group and lists some techniques that the counselor may use. According to his views, the counselor: (a) serves as group leader; (b) functions as a catalyst; (c) may have to protect some group members; (d) teaches skills needed by the group in order to make them function; (e) teaches

*Readings in Group Counseling, editors Muro & Freeman, Scranton: International Textbook Company, 1968, p. 320, 322.

techniques of problem solving; (f) facilitates group discussion; (g) looks for all things which interfere with group functioning; (h) looks for group assets; (i) may pull passive individuals into group; (j) makes the experience meaningful to all in the group. The counselor does this by the use of such techniques as: (a) reflecting feeling; (b) clarifying; (c) information giving; (d) role playing. (Muro & Freeman, op.cit.)"

The SRT leader is an active participant in the group. He is more than a facilitator of the team, he is also a resource person as he initiates activities, checks on attainment of goals, and maintains a positive supportive atmosphere. Each leader will develop his own style, but a task-oriented approach appears more suitable for the Supportive Resource Team.

Planning the Sessions. The opening session sets the stage for the series of sessions which follow. The number of sessions is determined in this opening session. The leader's perception of himself as a group leader and the means for delineating goals and objectives will determine the pace, content, and direction of this initial session.

In any new group situation, members are likely to look for something to identify with. They also look for similarities in each other. Often this unverbalized search is usually behind their questions during the opening session.

The initial structuring of a group also includes the setting of limits of time, level of disclosure, and confidentiality of information.

The Supportive Resource Team may be designated as task-centered. The feeling of doing something together, the sharing and submerging into the common task all have constructive effects upon members of the Supportive Resource Team.

GROUP COUNSELING: PROPOSITIONS FOR PRACTICE

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Group and Individual Counseling Differences

The problems which can be dealt with in group counseling are similar to those the counselor deals with in the one-to-one relationship but they are not limited to these. Group counseling can also be used to achieve goals and resolve problems which are uniquely concerned with group life and interaction, e.g., classroom dynamics, peer relationships and peer group functioning, family groups, etc. Group counseling may provide more opportunities for learning, change, and problem solving than the one-to-one relationship, but does not necessarily do so. There are two basic elements which make group counseling distinct from individual counseling. The first is stated as a principle as follows:

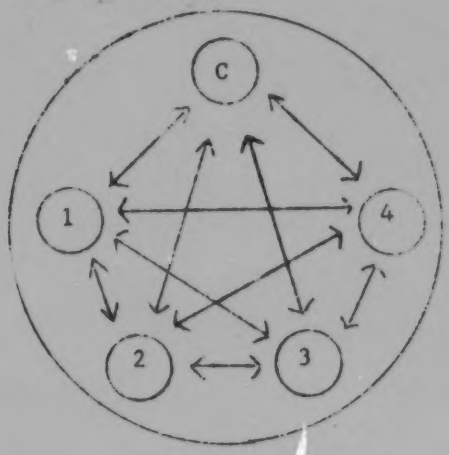
> 1.1 When an individual interacts in the presence of other individuals, a variety of social motives become relevant which are not evoked when he interacts with the counselor alone.

Many motives important to the individual affect his relationships and behavior with the other persons surrounding him. He likes to appear in a favorable light before other people, have friends, make an impression, and so on. When the individual interacts alone with the counselor, the influence of the people who surround him in his everyday life is minimal and, therefore, the influence of social motives is also minimal. Of course, many of the things discussed in the more private one-to-one relationship have relevance to the individual's social interaction with others. However, the presence of other individuals increases the relevance of the social motives. It is the recognition of these social motives and their affect on the individual's interaction which inhibits openness and honesty in groups. Thus, when an individual is relating in a group, much more of his behavior is influenced by his social motives. The change, growth, or development which occurs within the individual will be related to the effect of these social motives. He may try harder to improve his prestige or he may be more careful of his communications to avoid embarrassment. The presence of other persons creates new implications for the individual's behavior and heightens the possibility of being influenced by them.

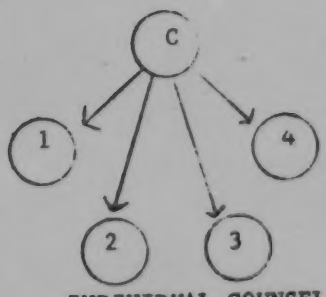
The introduction of social motives in the group adds an additional dimension to the counselor relationship. It is this added deminsion of social motives which makes group counseling more difficult than one-to-one counseling and which increases the probability both of success and failure in helping students in the process of change, growth, and development. The second element which distinguishes group counseling from the one-to-one relationship is stated as follows:

1.2 The number of potential helpers in the group is equal to the number of individuals in the group plus one.

The experience, knowledge, and skills of each group member become a resource for each other member. In addition, the responses and support the individual receives from peers can be as helpful as those received from the counselor. The plus one, in the principle, refers to the fact that a fully functioning group becomes more than the sum of its members. If the group develops the basic trust, openness, and solidarity which is possible then its very atmosphere becomes an additional support and help to the individual group member. This distinction between group and individual counseling also holds potential for both success and failure. As we add additional members to the one-to-one relationship we increase geometrically the potential of interaction and help, or failure if the group operates as a group and not as a counselor interacting with 7 or 8 individuals in a group situation (See the diagrams below).



GROUP COUNSELORS



INDIVIDUAL COUNSELING IN A GROUP

The Individual and His Adjustment to the Group

Each of us has developed a repertory of coping mechanisms to handle conflicts and anxieties. This is normal and part of human growth and development. However, there are times during development and during interaction with others when these coping mechanisms become maladaptive or self-defeating--maladaptive in the sense that they may inhibit communication and the openness, genuiness, and trust needed to develop effective relationships. The coping mechanisms can become self-defeating in the sense that while they do handle the present personal conflict or anxiety they produce side effects which also raise personal conflicts or anxieties, (e.g., eating to overcome anxiety may produce obesity which itself produces further anxiety which produces... etc., or not studying because of the fear of failure which produces failure which produces... etc.). Individuals seek, are referred for, or need help when their coping mechanisms become maladaptive or self-defeating and inhibit normal growth, development, or adjustment. This can be accomplished in either one-to-one relationships or in groups. As the individual becomes a member of a counseling group or part of an existing group there are a number of reactions which are typical (not necessarily universal). These reactions are described below through a series of propositions derived from research and practice.

2.1 When the individual, within the group setting, is in a state of personal conflict or anxiety, he has certain habitual coping mechanisms which he regards as essential to his existence, yet he also wishes to be rid of them.

As the individual's personal conflict or anxiety is exposed he will attempt to handle his conflict or anxiety by changing the situation so that it will ease his discomfort.

2.2 The individual's initial efforts to lower his anxiety will consist of attempts to institute relevant habitual coping mechanisms, that is, those which are also part of the cause of the original anxiety.

These initial attempts, of course, bring further anxiety and frustration. The individual's attempts are likely to be unsuccessful, or only temporarily successful, as he is confronted with his own behavior by other group members. The habitual coping mechanisms will be accepted only when they are compatible with or support individual or group goal(s). If the individual is unable to change the situation so that he can use his appropriate coping mechanisms, then he will resort to:

2.3 Efforts to influence the group goals or situation in a manner which will lower his threat and anxiety.

or

2.4 Efforts to insulate himself from the interaction which exposes his anxiety, that is, psychologically withdraw from the group.

Because the personal conflicts and anxieties are uniquely idiosyncratic, each individual experiences and conceptualizes the group situation and environment in a highly personal and individualistic manner.

2.5 Attitudes toward other group members will shift depending upon whether they facilitate or block conditions regarded by the individual as personally anxiety and frustration lowering.

2.6 The group is conceptualized in terms which help the individual cope with the threat and anxiety generated by the current group situation and its relation to his personal conflict/anxiety.

Task Group Counseling

The excitement about intensive groups (t-groups, sensitivity groups, encounter groups, marathon groups, etc.) which began in the '60's and continues into the '70's stems from a variety of societal and individual needs. Although intensive groups have generated great excitement, commitment, and argument, they have generated little research. The point here is not to discuss either societal or individual preconditions as a justification for intensive groups nor to critique their value by reviewing existent research. Rather, the purpose is to present an alternative for school counselors - Task Group Counseling.

The concept of task group counseling stems from an understanding of the practical condition of time impinging upon school counselors and the constructs of transfer of training, group tasks, and styles of leadership. An examination of group counseling research with these constructs provides some generalizations for task group counseling practice.

Time: There are two aspects of development in intensive groups generally requiring concentrations of time unavailable to school counselors. The first stage of development in intensive groups, the membership or milling stage, requres a good deal of time. In an intensive group it is important for members to confront the personal and group conflict of who they are in the group, why they are in the group, and who is to be responsible for the group and its growth. Although the time for development through this stage

varies, it usually ranges from one to two hours. The school counselors, however, must usually operate within the school's fifty-minute hour. Because teachers are usually reluctant to allow students to regularly miss classes it is difficult to obtain more than fifty minutes at a time to work with individuals or groups of students. In beginning group sessions time is usually over as the group begins to move through the membership or milling stage. This is repeated each session until members can begin their fifty minutes feeling comfortable with the group's existence and its purpose. It can take a considerable number of sessions before a group moves to further stages of development. This practical consideration provides the rationale and justification for scheduling concentrations of time for group work (e.g., 24 hour marathon groups, or practicing psychologists and psychiatrists usually plan two or three hour sessions if group experiences are to extend several weeks or months).

As the group develops beyond the membership or milling stage school counselors encounter another difficulty. Personal conflicts are exposed and interpersonal conflicts arise which the group would like and, many times, needs more than 50 minutes to resolve. Thus, members and counselors are often left with exposed conflicts and a sense of incompleteness which cannot be dealt with until the next session - sometimes a week away. Such experiences may be growth producing but the very nature of intensive groups generally requires a greater concentration of time at any point in development than school counselors have.

Transfer of Training: The concept of transfer of training is deeply ingrained in the history and practice of education and individual or group counseling. Simply stated, transfer of training refers to the application of knowledge, skills, habits, attitudes, or ideals acquired in one situation - such as the physics laboratory or counseling - to another situation - such as the kitchen, the farm, the machine shop, or interpersonal relationships (Kolesnick, 1962).

Beginning with some important investigations at the start of the twentieth century, the concept of transfer was hotly contested. Sides were taken, issues argued, and investigations concluded both that transfer did not occur and did occur. As with many issues the resolution existed somewhere between the two polarized positions. Whereas the possibility of transfer was once denied, it is now generally accepted as a sound principle that under certain conditions and to a certain extent transfer can and does take place (Kolesnick, 1962).

A frequent criticism of intensive groups is that they can become cultural islands. The honesty, openness, and self-disclosure which takes place in intensive groups is not always directly transferable to everyday life in school, the family, or at work. If we assume the purpose of counseling is to help individuals learn more

about themselves and their interpersonal relationships in a manner which will affect their development outside counseling, then it is important to examine the conditions which will promote transfer.

An examination of group counseling research provides generalizations indicating some conditions under which transfer is most likely to occur. There are several terms used to describe concepts common to a number of studies which are defined below.

Intrasystemic Task: Tasks which focus on behavior, skills, habits, attitudes, or ideals within the group or its members, e.g., improving interpersonal skills through group interaction, improving self-concept or self-esteem, self-other awareness, and so on.

Extrasystemic Task: Tasks which focus on individual behavior, skill, habits, attitudes, or ideals outside the group's interaction, e.g., improving GPA, classroom behavior, making realistic vocational choices, interpersonal relationships with teachers, and so on.

Counselor-Centered Group: A group in which the counselor assumes leadership in facilitating group establishment of goals and group interaction to accomplish goals. This is similar to Goldman's (1962) Level II process.

Student-Centered Group: A group in which the counselor participates but makes no direct attempts to influence. He acts as a sounding board for members through reflection, questioning and clarifying. He attempts to provide an atmosphere for expression of feeling but doesn't assume leadership, preferring to let it evolve among members. This is similar to Goldman's (1962) Level III process.

Generalization 1: Change will occur but transfer is less likely in student-centered groups with intrasystemic tasks.

Caplan (1957) used student-centered groups with "problem" junior high school boys - the counselor acted as a non-evaluating sounding board. The group's task was intrasystemic - problems and concerns of individuals were used as topics of discussion with focus on interpersonal relations within the group. Measurement of change for subjects was both intrasystemic (self-concept) and extrasystemic (favorable change of GPA). Data indicated significant changes within experimental subgroups and between them and non-counseled controls when compared on self-concept. Changes measured using GPA were not significant within subgroups or between experimental and controls.

Using senior high school students who were anxious about transition from high school to college, Clements (1966) attempted to lower

anxiety through student-centered groups -" ...counselors acted as contributing members ... rather than as group leaders" (Clements, 1966, p. 68). "...The groups were concerned with attitude tests, aspirations, and plans regarding college;" (Clements, 1966, p. 68). Discrepancy between self and ideal self-concepts was used as a measure of anxiety. Significant changes of self-concepts toward the ideal were found when pre- and post-measurements were compared.

Similarly, Broedel, et al. (1960) used student-centered groups with both intrasystemic tasks (acceptance of self and others as measured by the Picture Story Test and interpersonal relationships within the group measured by students themselves and an observer team) and an extrasystemic task (GPA). The subjects were junior high school gifted underachievers. Experimental groups gained significantly more in self-other acceptance than non-counseled controls. There were significant, healthy behavioral changes for subjects within the groups; but there was no significant changes in academic achievement.

These studies and others (McGowan, 1968; Bigelow & Thorne, 1969; McKinnon, 1969; Zimpfer, 1967) have used student-centered groups with intrasystemic tasks and each of them have produced significant changes on intrasystemic measures but not on extrasystemic measures. Such studies have proceeded on the assumption that group counseling would increase students' acceptance of themselves and that these changes are necessary conditions for motivating students to change their behavior outside of the group. At least with the studies reviewed this does not seem to hold true.

Generalization 2: Transfer is most likely to occur in a counselor-centered group with an extrasystemic task.

Using groups, Spielberger, et al. (1962) affected significant changes in the academic performance of high anxiety college freshmen. The groups were counselor-centered - discussion topics were initiated by students; counselors attempted to relate and facilitate the group's utilization of members; ideas concerning academic difficulties, vocational goals, getting good grades - an extrasystemic task. Experimental and control groups achieved significantly higher at the end of the semester and experimental groups achieved significantly higher than controls. The experimenters could find no significant relationships between GPA and personality, personal, or biographical variables. They, therefore, concluded that group counseling was the most likely explanation for observed differences.

Gilbreath (1967) used counselor-centered (CC) and client-centered (CLC) groups. The CC groups had an extrasystemic task - relating personality traits to scholastic difficulties and achievement. The CLC groups had an intrasystemic task - free discussion with emphasis on a non-threatening atmosphere for the expression of feelings.

intrasystemic (Dependency, Anxiety, Depression, etc.) and extrasystemic (GPA) measures were used to compare experimental and control groups. Data reported both on achievement and personality measures indicate that counselor-centered groups with extrasystemic tasks produced significant changes whereas client-centered groups with intrasystemic tasks produced no significant changes on either measure.

The studies reviewed as well as those of Hoyt (1955), Benson & Blocher (1967), Shaw (1969), and Vriend (1969) indicate the likelihood of transfer is increased in counselor-centered groups with extrasystemic tasks. It is also interesting to note that such a group and task combination appears to consistently produce significant changes on both intra- and extrasystemic measures while student-centered groups with intrasystemic tasks consistently produce significant changes only on intrasystemic measures.

Generalization 3: The likelihood of transfer in counselor-centered groups with extrasystemic tasks will be increased if the counselor offers high degrees of facilitative conditions.

Dinkenson and Truax (1966) used groups in which counselors offered various levels of therapeutic conditions by an "integrated didactic and experiential approach" (counselor-centered). The task of the groups was extrasystemic - raising GPA's for underachievers. The level of therapeutic conditions was measured by the degree of counselor empathy, regard, and genuiness. Data indicated no significant differences between the control groups and those experimental groups receiving moderate levels of therapeutic conditions. Experimental groups receiving high levels of therapeutic conditions increased GPA's significantly more than control groups.

Generalization 4: The likelihood of transfer of counselor-centered groups with extrasystemic tasks will be increased if members communicate in accord with group norms.

Behavior of students also effect outcomes. Mezzano (1967) investigated the relationship between the degree of a student's investment in group counseling and change in academic achievement (extrasystemic task). Degree of investment was defined as following established group communication norms as inferred by participation, willingness to explore, and communication of feelings. Counselors initiated discussion topics, facilitated group discussion, and related personality patterns to scholastic skills (counselor-centered). The findings indicated a significant relationship between the degree

of investment in group counseling (communication according to norms) and change in academic achievement.

Communication relevant to tasks is interdependent upon type of task and basic personality orientation of group members.

Generalization 5a: On extrasystemic tasks open or closed minded members have little difficulty communicating relevant to the task.

5b: On intrasystemic tasks open minded members are more likely to communicate relevant to the task than are closed minded members.

Personality factors as they affect the communicative functioning of counselor-centered groups was investigated by Kemp (1963). Communication of graduate students rated as having open and closed belief systems (Dogmatism Scale) in socio groups (extrasystemic tasks) and psyche groups (intrasystemic tasks) was studied. The results indicated there was no significant differences between "Open" and "Closed" individuals in the socio group sessions. In the psyche groups those with "Open" belief systems initiated significantly more communication relative to the task than those with "Closed" belief systems. In the socio groups all members' responses were useful in attainment of group purposes.

The generalizations presented above imply some of the conditions within groups under which transfer is most likely to occur. There are large gaps between and among the generalizations. This results from the inconclusiveness of much of the research and a lack of sufficient descriptions defining either group processes (leadership) or types of group tasks. It would be presumptuous to maintain that the generalizations are substantiated by the brief amount of research reviewed. However, the research is indicative and provides a basis for approaches to school counselors' use of groups.

Implications for Practice

The generalizations imply three basic approaches to group practice in school settings.

The Counselor as a Facilitator of Change and Growth: There are many times counselors work with subgroups of students for specific purposes - underachievers, test interpretation, classroom behavior problem students, and so on. The generalizations imply that counselors can be more certain of facilitating change if they carefully, with students' cooperation, establish specific extrasystemic goals. Having established goals, the counselor then has the responsibility of designing

tasks, group experiences, or facilitating the group's interaction with direct relationship to those goals. This means the counselor must continually help, in an accepting, genuine, and empathic manner, the members relate group experiences to goals and purposes outside of the group.

The Counselor as a Group Consultant: There already exist in school small groups with extrasystemic tasks - student council, homecoming or prom committees, language and science clubs, and so on. Each of these groups have goals and functions which affect both individual members and the school environment as a source of academic and social learning. Counselors with group knowledge and experience can and should act as a valuable consultant to such groups. Through helping these groups focus periodically on interactions which help and/or hinder movement toward effective decisions or activities, counselors will promote understanding of effective group operation and individual growth and insight in a manner transferable to other forms of group or individual interaction.

The Counselor as a Psychological Educator: Many aspects of individual development can be directly taught and learned through experiential group interaction. Counselors can use microlab techniques with large classroom groups as an experiential mode of learning about self and basic principles of human relationships and communication. The effects of such things as selective perception, one-way vs. two-way communication, hidden agendas, etc., upon individual and group relationships can be purposefully taught and experienced. Listening, speaking, and relating skills can be practiced. In this manner the counselor, as teachers, decide what outcomes, experiences, attitudes, or ideals are to be taught and experienced and then uses or designs specific tasks or exercises to accomplish them. There are a wealth of such tasks or exercises obtainable through N.T.L. publications or such books as those of Pfeiffer and Jones, "A Handbook of Structured Experiences for Human Relations Training" (Volumes I & II), 1969, & 1970. On the following pages you will find additional exercises.

Career Guidance Practices

OCCUPATIONAL CHARACTERISTICS EXERCISE

Purposes:

1. to increase stereotyped attitudes toward occupations.
2. to reveal positive and negative aspects of occupational stereotypes.
3. to illustrate the effects of verbalized stereotypes on personal feelings.
4. to reveal the similarity in social status occupations.

Materials:

"Occupational Characteristics" sheets numbered from 1 through 9 for each nine-member group.

Instructions for Leader:

TASK 1. Students (S's) are asked to fill out independently the "Occupational Characteristics" sheet according to directions. Sometimes S's will need to be prodded and coached to come up with three adjectives. Suggestion: If S cannot think of adjectives, ask them to write the first sentence that comes to their minds when they think of this occupation or a member of this occupational group.

TASK 2. S's form groups of nine. Ranks are read for each occupation in turn. Noticeable patterns, e.g., similarities in ranking or clusters of occupations at top, middle, or bottom, should be discussed briefly.

TASK 3. S's are informed of their assigned occupational role. (The number appearing on the sheet designates which occupation according to the order in which they are listed.) S's are instructed: "Use whatever form of persuasian you wish to get others to improve their ranking for your occupations."

Suggestion: Leader may have to encourage S's to get involved in discussions. Also leader may wish to take up advocacy of low ranking occupations.

After several minutes of discussion, favorable argument for each occupation can be summarized and recorded on paper or blackboard.

TASK 4. All S's read aloud the adjectives they have written to describe "clerks in a store." S playing role of "clerk" is

asked to report how she or he feels about what has been read. Next, S's read adjectives about "electricians" and so forth through all occupations.

Suggestion: Leader may want to help process the adjectives: "Are mechanics involved in dirtier work than surgeons?" Who is really more independent on the job, the janitor or the physician?"

TASK 5. Read the National Opinion Research Center social status rankings of occupations (in order they read 7, 4, 3, 6, 9, 1, 2, 1, 5). Note: These rankings are remarkably consistent across large numbers of people and over several decades in time. Although status rankings may be difficult to change, attitudes can be altered. Groups may verbalize the attitudes they wish to change in themselves or society at large.

OCCUPATIONAL CHARACTERISTICS EXERCISE

Directions: 1. Rank order the occupations according to their importance in society.

2. List 3 adjectives that describe each occupation.

_____ Clerks in a store are

_____ Electricians are

_____ Filling station attendants are

_____ Garage mechanics are

_____ Janitors are

_____ Lawyers are

_____ Owners of a factory employing 100 people are

_____ Physicians are

_____ Policemen are

VOTING

General Statement

In voting, the leader asks questions (like "How many of you daydream?") and group members raise hands in response.

Group members may indicate more or less affirmation by raising hands higher or lower. Example: "How many like smoking?": A high hand signifies liking it very much; a lowered hand means disliking it; a hand raised somewhat suggests a middle-range liking.

Discussion may or may not follow voting lists.

Group members are ordinarily given opportunities to prepare lists for future use.

PURPOSE: To raise issues, stimulate thinking, reveal group members to one another, and to quickly survey the thoughts and feelings of a group.

Questions to Assess Excellence of a Voting List

a. Did the question begin with a phrase that facilitated voting? Example: "How many of you...."

b. Did the list have somewhere between four and fourteen questions?

c. Did the list contain some questions that got at sensitive or confusing issues, such as family relationships, friendships, love, sex, religion, politics, work, leisure time, and death?

d. Was moralizing absent? (AVOID: How many can see why truthfullness is useful? BETTER: How many were in some way untruthful today?)

Sample Voting List:

1. How many of you have ever been seriously burned?
2. Anyone here ever own a horse?
3. How many think sometimes of dying or what death might be like?
4. I'd like to see how much loneliness is in this group. Vote either that you feel lonely often, sometimes, or seldom. How many feel lonely often? Sometimes? Seldom?
5. How many have a favorite political party? How many have no clear political ideas?
6. How many feel strongly about some religion or religious beliefs?
7. Who here watches television more than 4 hours a day on the average?
8. How many here think they have a hole in their sock or stocking right now?
9. How many of you have no fathers living in your home?

THE WHIP

Introduction

The teacher poses a question and then "whips" down row one, or the back row, or those along the window, and asks them to comment on the question if they wish. It is optional to respond. This way everyone has a chance to answer the questions, not just the more capable students. You can develop your questions to draw out certain students.

Questions to Assess Excellence for the Whip

a. Did the question capture the interest of the group? Routine or moralizing questions are inappropriate here.

b. Was the atmosphere non-judgmental and secure? Everyone should feel that he can say what he really wants to say, or can pass if he wants to do that.

c. Were so many group members asked to respond that it became boring?

d. Was any discussion held also non-judgmental? (If the teacher states his own ideas, he does so with the understanding that his position is merely one of many positions and is not meant to be the right position for everyone.)

PURPOSE: To stimulate thinking, give all a chance to respond, draw out certain students. A discussion may or may not follow.

THE FOCUS

In the course of a discussion or a lecture, the leader focuses attention on one group member and encourages him to express his thoughts or feelings.

It can be a mini-focus, a brief exchange, or an extended focus in which the focus person is drawn out more fully.

Sometimes other group members are permitted to ask questions of the focus person.

PURPOSE: To make the classroom more personal by shifting the emphasis from the content of the discussion to the way one human being is dealing with it; to expand the content of a discussion to include personal reactions, feelings, and ideas; and to permit one student to be in the spotlight for a bit of time.

Questions to Assess Excellence of the Use of the Focus Technique

a. Was the focus too long, so that the focus person became uncomfortable or the group became bored?

b. Was the focus too short, so that the focus person felt cut off or had insufficient time to communicate a thought?

c. Was the technique used at an appropriate time? (When many group members are anxious to say things, the focus technique is usually less appropriate than voting, small groups, whips, or other discussion techniques.)

d. Was the climate kindly and non-judgmental, so the focus person felt encouraged to speak and think aloud, and did not feel cross-examined or criticized for having his ideas? (The leader can disagree, but should save that disagreement for a time after the focus has finished; then the leader can state his position and invite other positions in a spirit of inquiry, not of argumentation.)

RANK ORDER

In rank ordering, a group of (usually) three items is presented to a group. (Example: wealthy, wise, good looking.) Group members are told to place the items in the order in which they prefer them. Some members are asked to say aloud the three things in their order of preference.

Discussion may or may not follow.

PURPOSE: The purpose is to give practice in making choices, and to show that different people have different preferences.

Questions to Assess Excellence for Rank Orders

a. Were choices not simple? Conflict or close decisions are preferable. (One way to make a conflictful grouping is to start with some attitude or activity, like "playing with friends." Then think of something that is close to that in desirability, perhaps "watching TV". Then think of a third thing that might be close to the other two, like "sleeping".

b. Were issues raised by the grouping interesting to the audience? Sometimes issues are raised that are not ordinarily discussed in public, so that persons can get to know how others feel about the issue. (Some useful issues: race relations, relations between the sexes, use of leisure time, relative value of certain so-called "good" things, and relative discomfort of typical undesirable things.)

c. If it would have been too dull for every person in a large group to state his preferences aloud, was voting used to allow the others to make their positions public?

d. Was the tone of the rank order exercise non-judgmental? Psychological space should be left for group members to think about their preferences. (Discussion, if held, does not lead to the conclusion that one set of preferences is right for all persons and at all times.)

Sample Rank Orders:

1. Reading, writing, and speaking.
2. Telling someone he has bad breath, sending him a note, doing nothing.
3. Being told you had bad breath, receiving a note, not informed in any way.
4. Swimming, Tuesdays, soup.
5. Which is hardest: being rejected by a friend, being hit by a big boy, losing your wallet?
6. Which do you prefer in a friendship: loyalty, generosity, honesty?
7. Which would you rather be: American Negro, African Negro, Mexican Negro?
8. Which would you rather be?

Bob Gibson, Mickey Mantle, Joe Namath
Mrs. Richard Nixon, Margaret Mead, Diana Ross
M.L. King, Malcolm X, Rap Brown
Phyllis Diller, Lucille Ball, Ann Margaret
Einstein, Freud, Darwin
James Bond, Jim Brown, Paul Neuman
Doris Day, Golda Meir, Mrs. Indira Ghandi
John Lennon, Frank Sinatra, Johnny Cash
Twiggy, Rachel Welch, Eleanor Roosevelt
Carol Burnett, Carey Nation, Barbara Walters

ONE-MINUTE REACTION STATEMENT

The leader (or another group member) posts a provocative statement or picture in front of the group.

After the group has had time to think about that stimulus, and when there is some free time, the leader asks anyone who wishes to do so to come to the front of the group and, for a minute or so, react to that stimulus in any way he chooses. No one in the audience should argue or in any way detract from what the reactor has said, but anyone can offer to go before the group and make his own reaction statement.

A person who changes his mind is encouraged to make a second reaction statement. The leader continues the process as long as he or the group desires.

One stimulus could remain for several reaction-statement sessions, or a different one could be posted for each such session.

In small groups, it is not necessary for the reactor to move to the front of the group.

PURPOSE: To give group members a chance to 1) clarify their ideas on a values-laden issue, 2) speak their minds without worrying about defending themselves in public, 3) hear alternative positions about an issue in a non-argumentative format, and

4) practice public speaking in brief episodes.

The one-minute reaction statement is especially useful for bringing a values issue into an academic class for a brief change-of-pace.

Questions to Assess Excellence of the One-Minute Reaction Statement

a. Was the stimulus provocative of thought and reactions?

b. Did the experience add something to the awareness of the group, or was it a rehash of old ideas about a familiar topic? (Sensitive, confusing, or timely issues are especially useful.)

c. Was the climate accepting and thoughtful, or was there more heat than light generated?

Samples for Reaction Statements:

1. A picture of a race riot.
2. "Children of all ages should be permitted to see X-rated movies, if they want to."
3. A photograph of a line of factory workers, all doing identical things in a mechanical way.
4. "Teachers should be hired and fired by the students."

PROUD WHIP

The proud whip is another strategy we feel would be useful with the "roving" type of counseling. Feeling proud is a natural feeling but many students have been taught that to display pride is unacceptable in our society. But since being proud of what one does usually makes a person feel good, we suggest this strategy as one alternative method for creating a counseling atmosphere.

Sample Proud Whip Strategies:

1. Take something out of your pockets or notebook or pocketbook which you are proud of.
2. Mention someone you know that you are proud of.
3. Relate an incident in your life that you are really proud of.
4. Relate an achievement you are proud of.
5. Something you said that you are proud of.

Essentially, the proud whip enables students to better understand their feelings of pride, allows students to express themselves freely, and generates an overall feeling of warmth and support in the class.

VALUE PATTERNS

The leader reads off a set of three statements. Each member decides which one of these statements he considers most important and which one least important. The group is then divided into subgroups according to their pattern of choices. An illustrative set of items might be: "To be generous toward other people." "To be my own boss." "To have understanding friends." All of those who chose "To be generous toward other people," as most important and, "To be my own boss," as least important gather together in the same subgroup to discuss the reasons for their choices. Similar subgroups are formed for every combination of choices. After five minutes of discussion the subgroups gather together to respond to another set of items. Below are examples of other such sets:

To be well liked.
To be free from having to obey rules.
To be in a position to tell others what to do.

To do what is morally right.
To go out of my way to help others.
To have people willing to offer me a helping hand.

After several sets of values have been responded to, the subgroups reassemble to discuss the total experience. Such discussion may center on the content of the subgroup discussions, the factors which underlie different value patterns and the origins of such differences, or on the nature of the interaction among the members of each subgroup.

This experiment, in forcing the student to make choices, can help him to become more aware of those values which guide his efforts and give them meaning. Also, students within the same subgroup usually become aware of the fact that significantly different antecedents, motivations, and meanings may underlie their common sets of choices. Another useful outcome stems from the experience of finding one's self in different groups depending on the set of values from which the choices had been selected. On observing the fluctuating composition of the subgroup membership, the student comes face-to-face with the diversity and complexity of the value pattern interrelationships which define individual personality. Finally, this experiment is an excellent one for bringing people together and introducing them to each other in a rather novel context.

SECOND-HAND IMPRESSIONS

This experiment was inspired by Dinnerstein. The leader tells the group, "Imagine that a new family, the Joneses, has moved next door to you. You have not met them, but you are curious to know what they are like. You try to develop some impressions from things that you overhear neighbors saying in conversation as to the kind of people they are. The first neighbor's remark you happen to overhear about the

Joneses, 'Don't the Joneses have a nice looking bunch of kids?' Now on the basis of this single remark, would you write a brief statement of your impression of the Joneses at this point?" After a minute or so, the leader continues, "The next day you overhear another neighbor remark, 'I had an interesting conversation with Jones today.' Now on the basis of the <u>two</u> remarks write your impression of the Jones family." The leader continues in a similar fashion with each of the following "overheard" remarks: "I hear the Joneses are very friendly people." "Don't the Joneses have an awful looking bunch of kids?" "I had a boring conversation with Jones today." "I hear the Joneses are snobs."

After writing out their sixth impression, as many members as there is time for read aloud their series of responses and report what happened to them during this experience. Some students' impressions shift in line with the shifting neighbors' judgments. Others persist in seeing the Joneses in positive terms throughout and discredit or discount the neighbors who made negative judgments. A few students may insist on postponing forming any impression until they have seen the Joneses for themselves.

The experiment is intended to bring into focus students' varying degrees of dependence on the social field and their pessimistic or optimistic orientations toward people.

CORRECTING A SENTENCE

This experiment was inspired by a "trick" described by Rice. The leader asks the class to write the following instructions so that they may refer back to them as often as they wish: "Look over each of the words in the sentence on the blackboard carefully. Can you find just one word in the sentence which, if you crossed it out, might correct the sentence?" The leader then writes the following sentence on the blackboard, "The words in this sentence do not add up to ten." He cautions the members not to talk to their neighbors during the experiment.

There are usually a few students who do not tamper with the sentence because they recognize that it is already correct as it stands. Most people in the group, however, cross out the word "not" in their efforts to comply with the instruction's apparent directive. The leader raises the question as to why some students were misled and others not. What usually emerges from the ensuing discussion is that a number of students recognized that the sentence was correct, but mistrusted their own judgment and submitted to the authority of the instructions. As one student put it, "I thought the sentence was all right, but since you had instructed us to correct it, I assumed that there must be something wrong with it that I hadn't been able to see." If, as sometimes happens, a student protests, "I don't see that this experiment means much except that you deliberately set up a trap, and we fell for it," the leader can acknowledge that he did, indeed, set up a trap, but he

may add, "Still what was it in you that made you vulnerable to falling for the trap?" The leader also inquires of the minority who did not tamper with the sentence what factors governed their behavior. Such an inquiry may elicit that some of these students were chiefly influenced by intense suspiciousness of what the leader was up to.

This experiment is intended to draw members' attention to uncritical attitudes toward authority and to the anxiety which countering authority, even on the basis of their own immediate experience, tends to generate. Even if one accepts a certain reasonableness in the majority's taking the leader's honesty of instructions for granted, it is still interesting to note how the students' submissive orientation to authority can be so powerful as to lead them to mistrust the evidence of their own senses. This experiment may also point up the excessive suspiciousness and distrustfulness toward authority existing in some students and the origins and meaning of such distrust in their lives.

CAREER DEVELOPMENT: WHERE DO WE GO FROM HERE?

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There is little doubt that the work-success ethic is the foundation as well as the core of the current American society. The stability of job status can be seen in the similarity between status rankings of occupations in 1910 and 1960 (National Opinion Research Center, 1962). Social worth and usually material worth are largely determined by occupation. Work is thus a way of organizing as well as maintaining the American society.

Proposition: If the American way of life is to change - meaning how we live and what we value - the nature and meaning of work must change.

Before discussing the possible meaning of work in the last three decades of the twentieth century, it would be well to further consider the current meaning of work.

First, work is an interrelationship between man and the environment. Neff (1968) provides a useful definition:

> Work is a distinctive area of behavior which is an instrumental activity (purposeful), as part of a planned alteration of the physical environment.

Work is the planned alteration of the environment for self-preservation.

There are several views regarding the psychological meaning of work. Freud depicted work as ". . . a painful burden to be endured - a renunciation of the instincts." Eriksan sees some form of work as necessary and has built "industry" as one of his developmental stages. Menninger is much less positive in depicting work as sublimation - a defensive activity.

Then there are those who are more frequently cited in the guidance literature. Super has described work as extremely important in developing a "positive" self-concept. Positive can mean an adequate

defense in Menninger's terms or an instrumental building block to good mental health in Erikson's schema. Ginzberg, as well as Super, has been concerned with the process by which one achieves vocational identity. Both assume a worker identity is psychologically good as well as socially necessary.

Work itself is a complex activity. One has to be able to perform satisfactorily (exhibit proper skills and attitudes) and one is supposedly rewarded (satisfied) through involvement in the work process, relations with supervisors and co-workers, pay increases, and promotions. But maybe producing, achieving, and consuming are no longer as socially "good" as conserving and serving. Ecology has come to the fore in the last five years. Since 1970 there have been more people employed in service occupations than in goods-producing occupations, suggesting that new criteria must be developed or agreed upon for distributing the wealth of the nation.

Movement from farm to city, a change from valuing large families to population zero, shorter work days, weeks, years and lives, unemployment at 6% (and going up unless more service jobs are created) will all influence the future occupational structure. If a generation of peace were achieved, what would happen to those in defense industries and in manufacturing plants? And we must consider what the consequences would be if in the North American societies, conserving were to be valued over producing and consuming.

How do counselors help children and adolescents prepare for an uncertain future? How many times will a person have to change jobs? What will be considered basic education and how will education be interspaced with the several careers predicted for nearly everyone? What will the next few decades bring?

Some Possibilities

First, the American society should continue to experience the following value conflicts - with the values on one side predominating at any given time.

Achievement	vs.	Self-realization/Actualization
Self-control	vs.	Self-expression
Independence	vs.	Interdependence
Full-employment	vs.	Full lives

The outcome of this value struggle will largely be determined by some of these factors:

1. Population growth
2. Age structure of the population
3. Spatial distribution of the population
4. World political challenge and our response
5. Growth of the demand for leisure

The balance has been shifting toward the "importance of the individual" in recent years which is most noticeable in the 1970 labor statistics which show that for the first time in our history, or at least since the "industrial revolution," more people are engaged in service occupations than goods producing occupations. This means that interpersonal relations have become as important as mechanical-technical skills. It may be the required skills of all workers are effective inter-personal relationships and it would be illogical to think of man-the-person, his skills and his accomplishments as separate or separable. The values have definitely shifted - economically at least - toward valuing the whole person and away from valuing his skills or achievements separately.

Some Observations

Population growth in the United States has slowed considerably. While the decision-making power during the 70's will lie with those between 35 and 60, the age structure of the population will be predominantly under 25 and over 55 - thus there is a danger that the decision-makers will be ignored or squeezed out by the conflicting demands of the numerically superior old and young. This conflict not only is volatile but threatens the natural evolution of new values emerging and taking hold as power passes to succeeding generations.

There should be continued growth in the demand for leisure or personal meaning from "non-productive" work and possibly "identity" and/or personal significance from non-work sources. Not only the amount but the quality of non-productive work will be a consideration most directly influencing the societal value conflict between full-employment and full lives.

The slow death of the cities and their wanton consumption of our natural resources, not dissimilar to the waste in Southeast Asia, may destroy most things of value resulting in the decade of the seventies becoming known as the "Decade of Demise." Only the feeble efforts of a few conservationists and ecologists are currently acting to slow the pace of self-destruction through consumption. Maybe fear or the remote possibility of satiating man's many appetites can turn us around. One has to predict a change because to do otherwise leads to the necessary conclusion that there will be no twenty-first century which is less than three decades away.

Recent and current events demonstrate the predominant values of the seventies will be values of self-expression, interdependence, and full lives.

Vocational Guidance for the Seventies

Certainly education must be redefined - both with regard to objectives and instructional methodology. Most likely the educational and vocational objectives of the next three decades will be consistent with the values of self-realization, self-expression, interdependence, and full lives. These value-objects can only be achieved by attending to the individual in a redefined society.

It will be necessary for teachers to know pupils as more than math students, English students, etc. Teachers will become more competent in interpersonal relations. Counselors should help to insure there exists an "environmental context" which will be conducive to providing a total education for the learner. Counselors will be intermediaries among and between key people affecting the lives of learners.

The most important skills for all of us will be

Highly effective interpersonal relationships

Knowing how to utilize information sources

An ability to make continuous and contiguous educational and vocational decisions

Achieving social significance and personal identity in one's life

Vocational development must be an integral part of one's total development.

Vocational guidance in the seventies must both reflect the emerging emphasis on self-development through education and also provide leadership in finding ways to assist individuals in the process of achieving harmonious relationships with their rapidly-changing physical and social environments. The future well-being of the individual and society requires that these functions be afforded a conspicuous role in the total educational process. They must assume importance as more than mere by-products of instruction.

In re-defining the role of vocational guidance, we must take into account the complexity of the vocational development process in a swiftly-changing world. On one side there is the individual, who through differential life experiences and reinforcement history has developed and continues to develop a unique pattern of preferences, values, capabilities, and coping mechanisms. He/she is faced with the constantly evolving network of social institutions and economic organizations which present opportunities for implementing career decisions. An important function of education is to bring the two into a dynamic relationship which is both psychologically and economically satisfying to the individual.

The multi-potentiality of the individual and the overwhelming array of career alternatives open to each of us precludes the notion that the career development process can be the exclusive domain of any one institution, agency, or professional group or that intervention in the process be confined to discrete choice points. Systematic dispersion of the vocational guidance function throughout the educational system, both in terms of time and personnel, and the broader community is a necessity. The individual, throughout his life span, receives vocationally relevant input from a variety of sources, including family, peers, teachers, counselors, and members of the broader community. Some input contributes to the individual's identity or self-concept; other input contributes to an understanding of the external environment, while still other input assists in skill building. A deliberate and systematic approach to career guidance will mobilize all possible resources and provide for a continuous and coordinated program of interventions at all stages of development.

Although an effective program of career guidance in the schools requires the participation of all members of the system as well as parents and members of the community, the school counselor is in a strategic position to provide the leadership and coordinating function in seeing to the integration of the disparate, peripheral, and often fragmented efforts now being made in order to provide a comprehensive, unified, and identifiable structure to facilitate career development. The counselor's traditional responsibility for vocational guidance affords him credibility in expanding into the more encompassing career development approach. In addition, most counselors have developed working relationships with other professionals in the system, parents, and community representatives which can be used to advantage in implementing a systematic program of career guidance experiences.

The counselor who chooses to respond to the need for redefining the role of vocational guidance to meet the career development needs of contemporary youth must engage in a concerted effort to prepare himself and others for this very important educational function. In doing this, he is confronted with four basic tasks:

1. Developing an understanding of the principles of career development as derived from theory and research in vocational development and occupational psychology.

2. Examining his own attitudes, understanding, and values concerning the relationship of the individual to the world of work in modern society.

3. Participating in and coordinating the designing of comprehensive career guidance interventions which are appropriate to each level of development and consistent with the principles of vocational development and the needs and resources of the local educational system and community.

4. Designing strategies to implement the comprehensive career development concept as a viable function in the schools and to involve significant school personnel, parents, and the broader community in the total program.

Understanding Principles of Career Development

The practice of career guidance must rest on a sound theoretical and conceptual base. Years of investigation into the career development process by a variety of individuals representing a number of disciplines and approaches have culminated in the formulation of a set of principles which can provide the foundation for a workable program of career guidance. Hansen (1970), in reviewing the theory and research undergirding career guidance, recognized five key concepts which seem to recur throughout the literature:

1. Career development is a continuous, developmental process, a sequence of choices which form a pattern throughout one's lifetime and which represent one's self concept.

2. Personal meanings or psychological determinants of work (what it means in the life of an individual in relation to his values and life style) may be far more important than external job characteristics.

3. Career development involves a synthesis or compromise, a reality testing which involves role identification, role taking, and role exploration, assessment of self and of opportunities and of the economic conditions in society.

4. Career patterns of individuals may be influenced by intelligence, sex, location, socioeconomic level, economic conditions, and the changing conditions in society.

The Counselor's Values

The principles of career development which have been cited previously apply as well to the counselor as to those whose vocational development he assists. His own needs, capabilities, interests, and values more than likely have influenced the career that he has chosen and the practices that he employs in implementing that career. Indeed, the nature and quality of the career guidance that young people receive may well be a function of just these aspects of the counselor's self-structure. Thus, it would appear to be critical that the counselor have an understanding of how the attitudes, values, biases, and stereotypes that he has developed affect the manner in which he approaches the career guidance of others. Self-assessment by the

counselor might include an examination of his attitudes and values in relation to the desirability of the work-success ethic in modern society, the differential value and prestige attached to various forms of work and leisure, the importance of education and training, and the place of women and other disenfranchised minorities in the world of work.

Designing Career Guidance Programs

If career guidance of the future is to be more than the peripheral, one-shot, hit-or-miss affair that it has been in the past, consideration must be given to implementing planned career development experiences both within and outside the general educational curriculum. The designing of integrated, cross-disciplinary guidance strategies for all grade levels and stages of vocational maturity depends to a large extent on identifying workable models of the career development process which can provide direction for establishing of both specific objectives to be attained at each stage of development and a delivery system through which strategies to meet those objectives can be implemented. Several such models have been suggested (Gysbers, 1969; Katz, 1966; Wisconsin Department of Public Instruction, 1971; and Winefordner,. 1968).

The model which follows was developed by the authors as a means of conceptualizing the key components of the career development process from the perspective of the developing individual. It represents a set of dimensions from which specific objectives can be defined and areas of responsibility can be designated toward the end of planning a comprehensive program of career guidance.

A MODEL FOR INDIVIDUAL DEVELOPMENT

I. Input Sources

Vocationally-relevant data impinges upon the developing individual from a number of sources both in and out of the school environment. The scope of these sources of input ranges from the significant others in the individual's environment with whom he interacts directly on a day-to-day basis to the countless persons whose impact is channeled indirectly through a variety of media. Identification of the specific contributions that each of these sources adds to the career development process provides a framework from which the counselor can determine who, besides the students themselves, are appropriate targets for his systematic intervention.

The major categories of vocational input sources include:

A. The family - parents, siblings, grandparents, aunts, uncles.

B. The school - teachers, counselors, administrators, social workers, librarians, coaches, paraprofessionals.

C. The community - broadly defined essentially includes all other sources of input, e.g. workers of all types, youth group leaders, religious educators, and books and TV, etc.

II. Input Data

Input data refers to the stimulus properties of the environment and includes the total complex of information which is received by the individual both incidentally and systematically. The nature and usefulness of this information varies considerably. As Roeber (1966) points out, "All contacts with people, things, and ideas (or lack of same) have potentialities for influencing career development." The functions of a career guidance program, therefore, are to identify for each level of development the types of information which are necessary and, to the extent possible, control the inputs through the systematic inclusion and exclusion of information.

The major informational categories of input data are:

A. Information about the environment

1. Educational institutions - functions of education; relationship of education to work; structure and purpose of the elementary and secondary curricula and their various components; opportunities for post-high school and continuing education.

2. The world of work - e.g. function of work in society; the general occupational structure; characteristics of families of occupations and specific occupations; entry requirements, etc.

*B. Skill acquisition - acquiring a broad range of competencies in relation to:

1. People - serving, speaking, signalling, persuading, diverting, supervising, instructing, negotiating, and monitoring.

2. Data (Ideas) - comparing, copying, computing, compiling, analyzing, coordinating, synthesizing.

3. Things (Materials and Machines) - handling, feeding-offbearing, tending, manipulating, driving-operating, operating-controlling, precision working, setting-up.

*Based on Dictionary of Occupational Titles worker functions.

III. Personal Development

Each individual selectively responds to input data on the basis of his past experiences and the idiosyncratic manner by which he encodes information and experiences. Thus, the subjective or phenomenological aspect of the individual is an important consideration in career development. We are concerned with the manner in which information about the environment and the acquisition of skills are incorporated into the self-structure of the individual. This personal development or "self" component of the model is reflected in the individual's cognitive processes for dealing with information about one's values and interests and the input data from the environment, e.g. decision-making processes.

IV. Processes

The career development process described above proceeds whether or not it receives specific attention by educators and significant others. How it proceeds, however, is another question. It is our contention that significant omission of critical aspects of the process may occur unless sytematic intervention at all stages is a planned practice. There are three career development processes which must be experienced by the individual if he is to achieve a satisfying career identity.

A. Exploration - exposure to information and involvement in a wide range of trial experiences.

B. Acquisition - acquiring skills needed to make and implement a sequence of career decisions.

C. Confirmation - deciding upon the meaning of career-relevant information and experiences in terms of present and future self-development.

A variety of systematic approaches to career development could follow from this model. We would like to suggest one way of organizing a K - 12 career guidance program that takes into account the aforementioned concepts.

One Approach to Career Guidance: The Human Development Kit

The Human Development Kit is a tool for individualizing and highlighting the career development of students through actively involving the individual and significant others in the career development process. Essentially the kit would be a "living" cumulative record, consisting of a system for classifying career-relevant information and experiences and a means for permanently recording and storing this information and its meaning to the student. Its most important feature is that it would be the student's own product.

In the early grades, making and up-dating entries would be the shared responsibility of the student and teachers, counselors, and parents, however, as the student matures and gains skill in self-expression, he would increasingly assume more responsibility for maintenance of the kit. The kit and its contents would be systematically reviewed throughout the school years during regularly scheduled conferences with teachers, counselors, and parents. The purpose of this review would be to insure that (1) regular entries are being made, (2) the student is able to integrate the information into a meaningful concept of self, and (3) the student is being provided with the full range of career-relevant experiences.

The kit would be organized around a set of developmentally-appropriate objectives which would incorporate components I, II, and III of the Model for Individual Development. These objectives would guide both the student and significant others in seeking and providing relevant career guidance experiences. Maintenance of the kit on a longitudinal basis should emphasize the importance of a planned approach to career development and more actively involve the student and others in the total process. As a tangible and personalized record of individual development, the kit would serve as a vehicle for implementing the three processes previously discussed.

1. It serves as a stimulus for continuing and broadening the scope of exploratory behaviors (EXPLORATION).

2. It provides for a systematic organization and storage of information about the self and the environment providing the basis for a series of career decisions (ACQUISITION).

3. It provides systematic feedback to the student as decisions are made and implemented through review by the student and significant others (CONFIRMATION).

Consultative Strategies

The approach to career guidance characterized by the Human Development Kit emphasizes the contributions which parents, school personnel, and the broader community make to the career development of youth. Thus, if the counselor wishes to implement this or any other comprehensive approach, he must involve these significant others as active partners in the program. Ultimately, of course, career guidance activities are directed at the students; however, the counselor may not always be the most appropriate individual to implement certain of these activities. In such cases, the counselor's role is that of an intermediary or consultant to the key people in the students' environment.

The counselor performs two essential functions as a consultant in career development: (1) communicating the importance of a planned, integrated approach in such a way as to enlist the cooperation of

teachers, administrators, and parents, and (2) instructing these significant others in the ways that they can be facilitative in the career development process.

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GROUP APPROACHES TO ACHIEVE INSTITUTIONAL CHANGE

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> The Goal of Education must be to develop a society in which people can live more comfortably with change than with rigidity. In the coming world the capacity to face the new appropriately is more important than the ability to know and repeat the old. (Carl Rogers)

What part will counselors play in acquisition of skills necessary for development of the above? Will they facilitate student adaptiveness and flexibility or will they impede student progress toward development of positive coping mechanisms? If they wish to facilitate, what tools do they have which lend themselves to development of attitudes which are beneficial for facing a continually changing environment?

Group counseling may provide the necessary methodology for the successful counselor of the future. Presently, group counseling is being used in schools in a variety of ways. A review of the literature indicates a preponderance of information about the intrinsic and extrinsic value of group interaction. Numerous articles exist which attest to the efficacy of using groups to change individual attitudes, values, and behaviors. Many others examine the internal functioning of both group members and group leaders. However, despite the voluminous number of publications, both in article and book form, relatively little has been written about the use of groups or group methodology for institutional change. Therefore, the purpose of this paper is to partially remedy this situation and to examine the use of groups as a means of inducing change in educational institutions. To accomplish this rather ambitious task it will be necessary to focus attention on three key elements, i.e., counselors as change agents, group approaches, and implementation of group processes.

Counselors as Change Agents

> A change agent is defined here as someone who strives to move against the status quo when he feels that it is hurting those individuals whom he is trying to help.
>
> (Baker & Cramer, 1972)

Change in individuals and institutions will occur with, or without the help of counselors. There is no question about this. The important questions arise, however, when one questions the directionality and impact of these changes. Will they occur for the benefit or detriment of the individual and/or society. Further, can counselors become involved and affect, in a positive direction, their clientele and those with whom they come into contact? Are counselors powerful enough to make a difference? Is being an advocate of change really the counselor's job? Answers to these questions can not be easily determined. Furthermore, answers cannot be forwarded which will have universal application to all counselors in all settings. Situations must remain as partial determiners for counselor actions. Despite these limitations counselors in general should be familiar with recent suggestions advocating that the counselor become an ombudsman, an environmental engineer, or an environmental activist. Counselors in their private settings must determine what institutional sanctions exist; what they wish to achieve with and for their clientele; what methods they plan to use to enact their perceived role; and means for evaluation of what they undertake.

What is an activist counselor's role? All to often counselor activity centers around the problem of counselee adjustment. That is, a frequent enactment of the counselor's role is to help counselees adjust to the press of the institution. An activist counselor would not stop with the one-to-one relationship. He, instead, would use the one-to-one relationship as a springboard for changing the environment so that it would be more consistent with individual needs. Day (1972) suggests that the counselor should become "a creative force in the liberation of the educational process." Counselors should "engineer extending and corrective experiences" for their counselees and they should develop "skillful uses of the environment for additional means of assisting students" (Matheny, 1971). In essence, they must discover methodology for teaching counselees to change their own environment (Lifton, 1972, p.9) while developing skills for facilitating inclusion of teachers, parents, and community in the institutional change process.

To accomplish this task counselors must approximate the role of the ombudsman described by Ciavarella and Doolittle (1970) who advocate an activist approach which is founded on the four principles of nobility, advocacy, acting, and criticizing. In this model, Nobility infers that the counselor be willing to leave the safety of his office and to stand between his client and the environment. He must serve as a champion for the student in the students' quest for a meaningful education. Advocacy often results from the enactment of nobility. The counselor in serving as the student champion should be attuned to elements of the institutional environment which are in need of change. Once these are determined the counselor is responsible for advocating those changes which will build upon student psychodynamics and which will lead to positive student growth. Acting, the third component of the ombudsman's role, is to act on matters which are relevant to his clientele. To advocate is necessary but not sufficient. Action must

follow. The counselor must initiate, recommend, refer, promote, investigate, and/or undertake whatever activity is called for to move the system to make the necessary and proper changes. Finally, the counselor must constructively Criticize the system. He must actively criticize and encourage student and staff criticism as a means of improving the services offered by the institution to their clientele. He must be willing to level criticism at all factions of the institution which prevent students from receiving the best possible education. His criticism must be consistently constructive and purposely aimed at improving that which exists. It should never be negative or derogatory in intent or content. Enactment of the ombudsman's role in its totality does not guarantee the counselor that he will be the most popular member of the institutional team. It does, however, provide students with a means for effecting change in institutions supposedly originated for their benefit.

Activity as an ombudsman or agent of change can place the counselor in a perilous political position. Counselors may be caught on the horns of a dilemma. Dworkin and Dworkin (1971) pose that involvement and commitment to change may result in failure, but if counselors do not try, there is a good chance that they will soon cease to be functional and will lose their jobs to others who can make a difference. By contrast, Haettenschwiller (1970) infers that counselors tread on tenuous grounds because they have no power base from which to operate as environmental change agents. Baker and Cramer (1972) extend this inference to say that the counselor that enacts his role as change agent runs the risk of "retaliation from the most potent and powerful protectors of the status quo."

Can counselors risk being agents of change? Can they afford not to? The solution to the dilemma posed may lie within the institution itself. Counselors, hopefully, are communication experts. They should be well versed in the intricacies of interpersonal communication, student needs, educational systems, and the inter-relationship of each of these institutional components. Taking into account each of these factions the question becomes, "How can counselors utilize their knowledge of the institution to promote significant others in the institution to advocate a policy of institutional examination and change?" In a word, the answer to this question is involvement. Strong pressures for change can be established by creating a shared perception within institutional team members of the need for change, thus making the source of pressure for change lie within the group and not solely within the counselor (Cartwright and Zander, 1968).

A Group Approach

For a mass of people to be classified as a "group" Loesser (1957) contends that five elements must be present. Groups must have:

1. Dynamic interaction among members
2. A common goal
3. A relationship between size and function
4. Volition and consent
5. A capacity for self direction

Groups that meet these criteria will be the prime focus of this paper. Special focus will be on two types of groups, i.e., formed groups and natural groups. Formed groups are those that are organized to achieve a clearly specified goal; examine a particular policy; recommend institutional changes; or in general, those that are formed to accomplish specific tasks. Membership in formed groups can range the entire educational continuum, i.e., from students to teachers, administrators, counselors, community representatives, and parents. Composition of any one formed group can consist of members from any, or all, of these subpopulations.

Natural groups differ from formed groups in that each group member has a unique characteristic in common with each other member of his natural group. For instance, a group of elementary school parents, a group of underachieving junior boys, and a group of PTA members would all be considered natural groups. Inclusion in the group is a function of a specified condition or characteristic not because of a specific task or objective.

Effectiveness of groups, either natural or formed, is maximized when certain key principles are adherred to. Lippitt (1958) suggests that:

1) "Groups should be used for decision-making when they can contribute to the solution of the problem." Utilization of group procedures is a waste of human time and energy if the potential for change is outside the group or the group's sphere of influence. The group's power potential should be determined before formation of the group or, at the latest, in the early stages of group development.

2) "Group decision-making can be valuable if the group members have learned to work together effectively." Ineffective group interaction prevents individuals within the group from expanding their personal range of awareness and precludes development of functional group decisions.

3) "Group decision-making is most appropriate where shared leadership is practiced." Each group member must feel free to initiate ideas, discuss personally relevant topical issues, question input of other group members, and compromise as he so determines. Conversely, leadership by one person stiffles creativity and reduces overall group decision-making potential.

4) "To reach group decisions, a group will need to have appropriate procedures for the particular problem or situation." Group members should establish the rules by which they intend to function at their first group meeting. Adherence to specified guidelines will facilitate group interaction and will prevent formation of barriers to group decision-making.

In addition to the above, certain factors will enhance the group decision-making process (Lippitt, 1958).

1) A clearly defined problem. The parameters of the problem must be clearly stated. Ambiguous wording or inappropriate terminology will impede group progress. Problems should be stated as objectively and succinctly as is possible.

2) A clear understanding of who owns the responsibility for the group's decision. Members must know to what degree they as individuals are responsible for group decisions and to what degree they are limited by these decisions.

3) Effective utilization of idea production. It is important that creative thinking is encouraged within the group and that group members do not restrict the flow of thoughts to those initially verbalized. "Spin-off" and "brainstorming" are crucial to development of the best ideas.

4) Attention paid to the size of the group. The optimal size for effective group interaction varies with the task and composition of the group but is usually considered to be between 8 and 12 persons for most decision-making concerns. Experimentation may be necessary to determine the best group size for a particular situation.

5) A means for testing different group alternatives for action. Before a group adopts a strategy for action it should test its appropriateness and effectiveness. Pilot studies on samples from the intended population can frequently provide information referent to which alternatives are best for which purposes.

6) A group commitment to decision(s) that evolve. The group has a responsibility to implement in practice that which originated in group process. Procedures for how, when, and by whom the decision(s) will be carried out should be planned within the group.

7) The Leader should have a commitment to the group-decision process. Acceptance of total responsibility for group actions by one individual will prevent the group from exploring all necessary avenues of thought. The leader should act as a facilitator of group process and not as if he were the only group member with pertinent ideas.

8) An agreement as to methods that are to be used for decision-making. Plans for making intergroup decisions should be carefully spelled-out and discussed before any central issue is examined by the group. Commitment to a specified methodology will help prevent splitting of the group on crucial issues.

Implementation of Group Process in Educational Institutions

Both Natural and Formed groups can be used to make relevant decisions and to affect change in educational institutions. A systematic approach which heeds the factors presented above should be developed and used. In an attempt to help the reader incorporate these ideas into an organized package, one approach for using groups follows:

A. Action Research Steps for Problem Solving (Jung, 1966)

1) Identify the problem. The first, and probably most crucial task is to identify the problem in specific, succinct terms. Examination of those parties being affected by the problem can frequently highlight the primary concern. That is, it must be determined if the problem affects self, others, an organization or system, or the total society. Attendance to available research information can often provide information referent to the concern and should be examined and utilized whenever possible.

2) Diagnose the problem situation. Once the problem has been clearly stated forces impeding or facilitating achievement of the desired goal should be outlined. This process often results in redefined or new goal statements. Diagnosis should be a continuous part of problem solving.

3) Consider action alternatives. As diagnosis progresses consider possible courses for initiation of action. Each possibility should be considered in relation to the institutional forces at work and the persons that will be involved.

4) Try out an action plan. Once an action plan has been sufficiently developed it should be field tested. This will provide an opportunity for evaluation of the program effectiveness, a means for analyzing situations in relation to the program, and a vehicle for noting what skills will be necessary for effective utilization of the proposed method. Knowledge learned from the field testing should be re-introduced into the program so that provisions for change and/or education of participants can occur.

5) Diffusion and adaptation. Problem solving techniques and experiences should be shared with all interested parties. Discussion should consist of a clear statement of the presenting problem, the forces involved in the problem situation,

a description of action undertaken, a report of results, special problems which occurred, and special skills that were needed to carry out particular actions.

B. Force Field Technique for Diagnosing a Problem

The following description of the force field technique was originated by C.C. Jung at the Center for Research on Utilization of Scientific Knowledge at the University of Michigan, 1966. This technique is particularly adaptable to groups; lends itself to institutional change; and is, therefore, reproduced in its entirety for your use.

Force Field

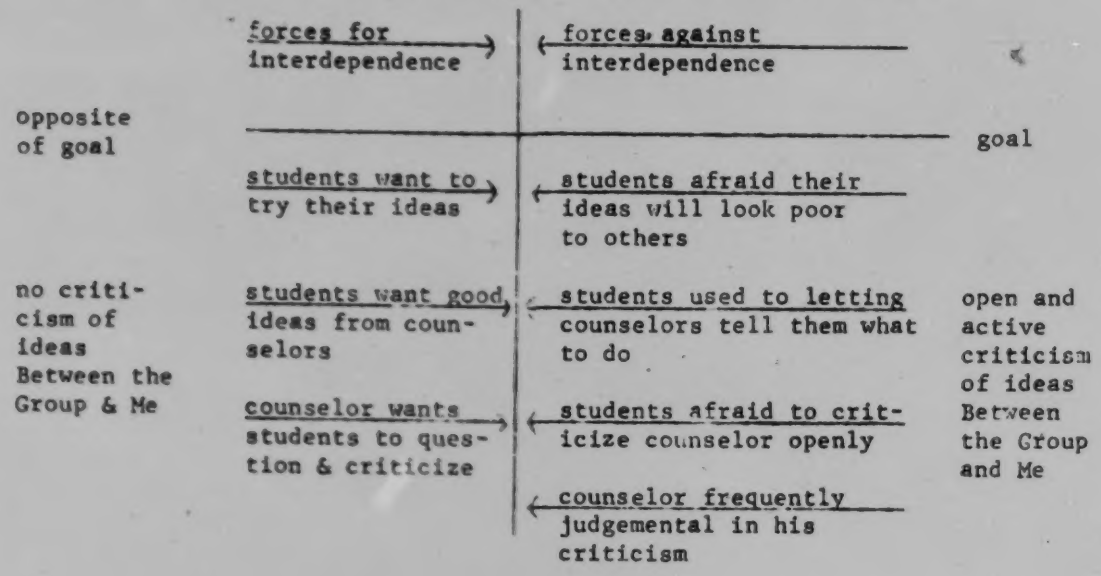
To use this technique, one must first state a problem in terms of a clear goal. An example will be used to illustrate the technique. Mr. Jones is a counselor who states his problem as follows:

> As an adult working with a group of students, I'm concerned about developing interdependence between us. I don't want the students in our counseling group to do things just because I suggest them. On the other hand, I don't want them to reject ideas just because they come from the adult. I have a goal of the group becoming more open and active in criticizing what they see as helpful and unhelpful in my suggestions and of seeking my reactions to theirs.

Mr. Jones is now ready to write out his first force field. He takes a blank sheet of paper and writes the general nature of the problem at the top. He then draws a horizontal line across the top. On the left side of the line he writes "forces for interdependence." On the right side he writes "forces against interdependence." In the right-hand margin of the paper he writes the goals which he has specified for his problem, "open and active criticism of ideas between the group and me." In the left-hand margin of the paper he writes the opposite of his goal, "no criticism of ideas between the group and me." Now he draws a vertical line down the middle of the page. This line represents the way things are at the moment with regard to openess and activeness of criticism between him and the group. Things are the way they are at the moment because there is a set of forces pushing from the left toward openness and activeness of criticism, and equal set of forces pushing from the right against openness and activeness. If the forces on the left become stronger while those on the right stayed the same or got weaker, then the line would move toward the right - toward more openness and activeness. Mr. Jones must now write out what he believes to be the important forces operating in this situation. Diagram I presents his first effort at writing out the force field.

Diagram I

Force Field #1 - Interdependence Between the Group and Me


forces for interdependence
forces against interdependence
opposite of goal
goal
students want to try their ideas
students afraid their ideas will look poor to others
no criticism of ideas Between the Group & Me
students want good ideas from counselors
students used to letting counselors tell them what to do
open and active criticism of ideas Between the Group and Me
counselor wants students to question & criticize
students afraid to criticize counselor openly
counselor frequently judgemental in his criticism

Mr. Jones wasn't very satisfied with his first effort to draw the force field. He guessed that there must be additional forces than the ones he had thought of. During his next meeting with the students, he raised the question of how people felt about discussing each other's ideas. He asked specifically for their reactions to some of the ideas he had recently suggested. He specifically asked them to share their reactions to the weak aspects of these ideas and how they might be improved. The students seemed pleased at being asked for their reactions. They also seemed reserved about giving them. One of them told him privately later, "We just don't talk about that with counselors or adults. I would have said some things, but the other kids would have thought I was being an apple polisher."

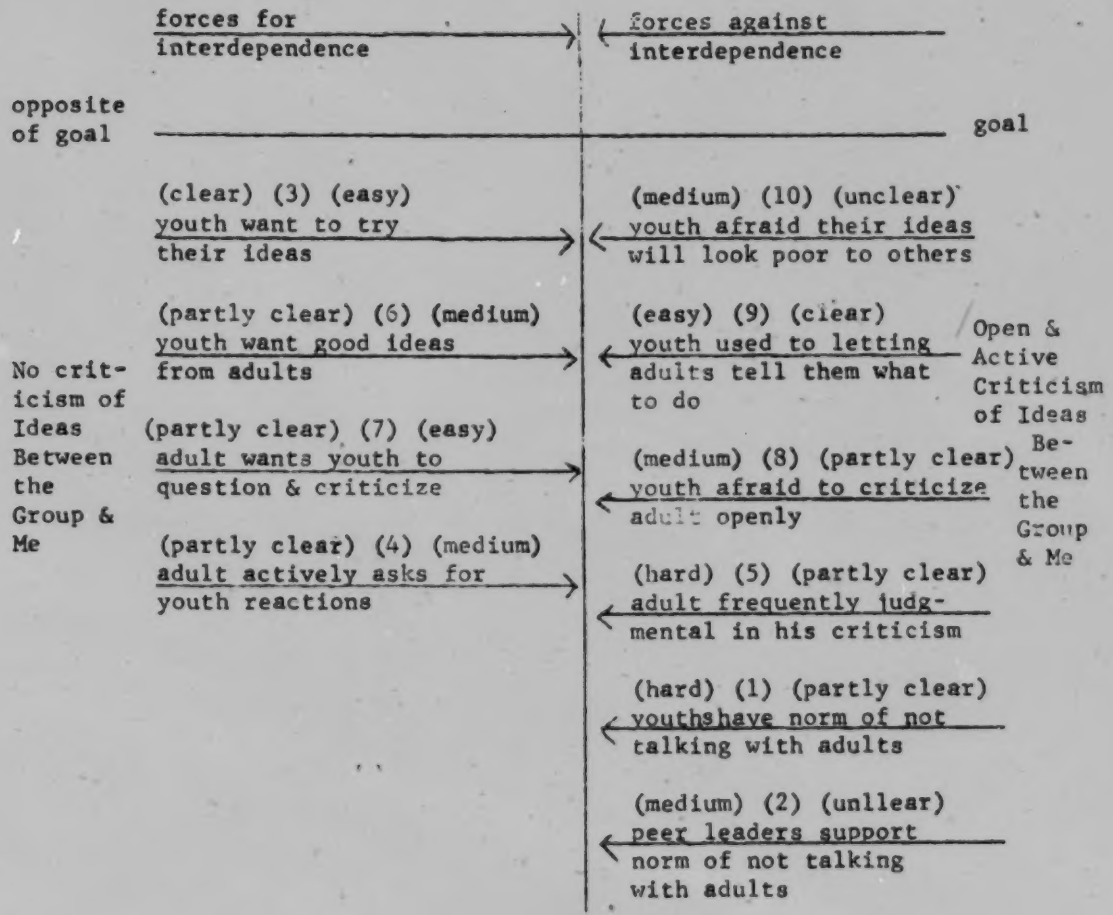
Mr. Jones believed he had learned two things from the discussion. One was that an additional force for was to actively ask the students for their reactions. Another was that there was some kind of norm among the students about not talking to counselors in a way that would seem to be apple polishing. This norm appeared to be an important force against. He thought maybe the peer leadership of the group was an important force against which was affecting the way this norm operated in the group. Mr. Jones added these three forces to his diagram.

Mr. Jones now did three additional things with his force field. First, he ranked all the forces in terms of how important he thought they were in trying to change the situation. He put a number 1 by that

force which he believed would yield most movement toward the goal if it could be changed. He put a 2 by the force that he thought would result in the second greatest amount of movement if changed - and so forth. Second, he rated each force in terms of how easy it would be for him to bring about some change in it. He gave each force a Hard, Medium, or Easy rating. Third, he again rated each force this time in terms of how clear he was about whether it really was a force - Clear, Partly Clear, Unclear.

Diagram II

Force Field #2 - Interdependence Between the Group and Me


forces for interdependence
forces against interdependence
opposite of goal
goal
(clear) (3) (easy) youth want to try their ideas
(medium) (10) (unclear) youth afraid their ideas will look poor to others
(partly clear) (6) (medium) youth want good ideas from adults
(easy) (9) (clear) youth used to letting adults tell them what to do
No criticism of Ideas Between the Group & Me
Open & Active Criticism of Ideas Between the Group & Me
(partly clear) (7) (easy) adult wants youth to question & criticize
(medium) (8) (partly clear) youth afraid to criticize adult openly
(partly clear) (4) (medium) adult actively asks for youth reactions
(hard) (5) (partly clear) adult frequently judgmental in his criticism
(hard) (1) (partly clear) youths have norm of not talking with adults
(medium) (2) (unllear) peer leaders support norm of not talking with adults

Now Mr. Jones had a picture of what he thought was going on in his problem situation. The most important thing that stood out to him was that he was not very clear about some of the forces which he guessed to be important. He went back to the youth to get more information about

forces that were not clear. He got this information both through discussions and by using questionnaires. The force which he had ranked as most important seemed so complex to him that he wrote out a force field diagram about it!

This helped him identify further forces and questions he needed to discuss with the youths. Mr. Jones also began to consider ways he could alter some of the forces. He put some of these alternatives into action. His efforts to get information so as to diagnose what the force fields were turned out to be an action plan in itself which proved helpful. Mr. Jones found the group changing in the direction of his goal.

At the end of several weeks, Mr. Jones found it helpful to look back over his efforts. He could note the changes which had occurred in his force field over time. He knew that his current force field diagram was much more accurate than his first attempts had been. It was based on careful data gathering. He had gathered some kinds of data several times so that he could see evaluatively how some of the forces had changed in response to the action efforts which he and the youth had worked out. Most exciting to Mr. Jones was his discovery that he could share the force field technique with students. Now they were working together on diagnosing goal situations, planning action for the group, and evaluating the reasons for success and failure.

Summary

A person applying the force field technique in diagnosing a problem and/or deriving the most appropriate solution will have completed the following process steps:

1. Identified a problem/goal
2. Communicated a problem applying all criteria
3. Listed forces for and against in proper form
4. Rated forces in numerical scales in terms of ease of change
5. Ranked forces in numerical scales in terms of importance
6. Gathered data about problem
7. Evaluated data and derived other forces, etc.
8. Derived and stated appropriate solution strategy
9. Evaluated solution effectiveness

C. Implementation

Proper use of the force field will be enhanced if the group makes provisions for implementation by considering and acting on the four key concepts of what must be done, how can it be accomplished, when should it be initiated, and whom should be responsible for initiation, action, and follow through.

1) What must be done? The force field analysis provides a vehicle for identifying problems, gathering data, designing strategies, and evaluating outcomes. To be effective, specific plans should be outlined for those actions that will be undertaken as a result of the force field. These plans should be arranged in a hierarchy with the most crucial listed first.

2) How can plans be accomplished? For each plan in the hierarchy a parallel plan should be outlined for how it will be accomplished. Emphasis should be placed on what procedures will be used, what persons will be involved, what materials and/or equipment will be needed, and how skills and experiences can be employed most effectively.

3) When should action be initiated? Timing is frequently a crucial variable in whether an idea or plan is accepted or rejected. Therefore, attention should be paid to institutional and individual variables that may affect the timing for implementation of the plan.

4) Who should be responsible for initiation, action, and follow through? Although each of the above three factors is important the ultimate success or failure will frequently be due to he who is given responsibility for action. Many factors must be considered. To isolate a few: who has "power" within the system?, will Mr. or Mrs. X be willing to champion our cause?, or will Mr. or Mrs. Y have enough contact time to be adequately influential?

In conclusion, both the when and who concerns should be geared to the hierarchy established in the what and how sections. Therefore, for each step in the overall plan provisions for what will be done, how it will be accomplished, when it will be initiated, and who will be responsible for action will be clearly outlined.

An Example: Change Within School District A

The following is a fictious case originated to exemplify how the foregoing materials might apply.

School counselors in School District A became cognizant of the fact that "disadvantaged" students in their school system were having difficulty in completing four years of high school. They attributed this phenomenon to inadequate educational experiences. To remedy this situation they decided to develop special programs for the disadvantaged student and those who probably would not go on to education beyond high school.

The counseling staff decided to form a task force to address itself to the identified problem. To maximize the potential of their endeavors they invited administrators, teachers, parents, and board of education members, to an open forum to discuss what might be done. As a result of this forum a 20 person "task group" was formed which had the following composition:

1) Two elementary school teachers
2) Two elementary school principals
3) One Junior High School Administrator
4) One Junior High Counselor
5) One Senior High Counselor
6) One Senior High Vocational Counselor
7) One School Social Worker
8) One School Psychologist
9) One School Nurse
10) One School Speech Therapist
11) Three parents representing elementary, junior & senior high
12) Two Board of Education Members
13) Two City-wide Consultants
14) One Project Director

Plans were established to have the task group meet, to propose a cause for city-wide action, to make recommendations for needed personnel, materials, and facilities; and to lay the ground work for implementation of ideas.

In the first meeting the task group project director reiterated the purpose for the task group. The goal for the first day was to determine a clear, concise statement of the group's objectives from the general statement of purpose, i.e., "To develop programs for the disadvantaged student and those who probably would not go on to education beyond high school." This statement proved to be broad and ambiguous for group members. Consequently, the group decided to address themselves to a simpler, but related problem of "Promoting Student Development." For accomplishing the charge of writing a clear objective statement the project director divided the 20 group members into 4 teams of 5 people each. No group had more than one specialist from any educational area. A force field technique approach was used.

Each individual was instructed to make a force field design which they perceived to be a force toward or away from achieving the general goal of promoting student development.

Dicgram III

Promoting Student Devemopment

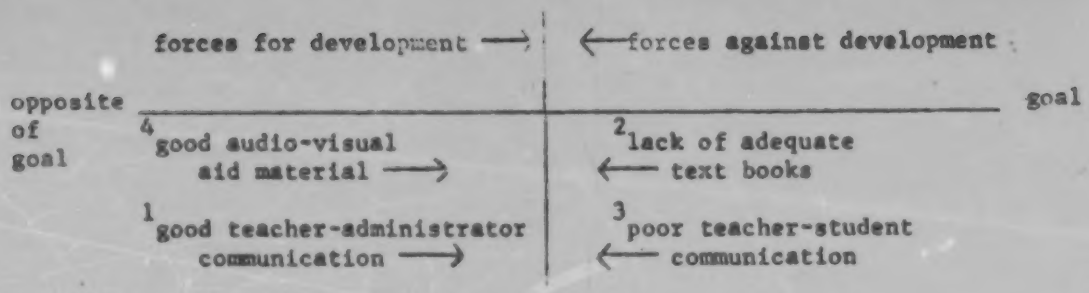

forces for development ⟶
⟵forces against development
opposite of goal
goal
4 good audio-visual aid material ⟶
2 lack of adequate ⟵ text books
1 good teacher-administrator communication ⟶
3 poor teacher-student ⟵ communication

Diagram III represents an abbreviated force field diagram drawn up by an elementary teacher. The numbers 1 through 4 indicate her ranking of items from most important to least important.

Once individuals had finished their personal diagrams they were asked to work as a group on phase II. They were instructed that throughout the exercise they were not to discuss the "rightness" or "wrongness" of another's force but that they should remain sensitive to the forces others express. They were then given the following instructions:

1) Share the top ten items each of you perceived
2) From these (a possibility of 50 items per group) determine one group list of 20 items
3) As a group rank order the 20 items with the most important placed first
4) Rate your final ranked items as to clarity, i.e., Clear, Partly Clear, Unclear.

Once the above had been accomplished, groups 1 and 2 were combined as were groups 3 and 4. Each new group, therefore, had ten persons in it. Instructions for these groups (A & B) were as follows:

1) Each subgroup (5 persons) is to share its twenty ranked items with the other subgroup (5 persons).

2) The group (10 persons) is to reduce the 40 items to the most relevant or important 20 items.

3) Rank order this list of 20 items.

4) Discuss each item on this new list and rate it in terms of clarity, i.e., Clear, Partly Clear, Unclear.

5) Rate each item on the level of difficulty for changing the condition that the item describes, i.e., Hard, Medium, Easy.

Finally, group A & B were combined into a total group of 20 persons. There instructions were to:

1) Share the top 20 items determined in each group
2) Reduce the 40 items to the 20 most relevant or important
3) Rank order the list of 20 items
4) Rate each item on "clarity" and "level of difficulty"

Approximately four hours would be needed to accomplish the force field described. A second meeting could then be utilized to examine and discuss the questions of what, how, when, and who. Each of these questions would be viewed relative to the final 20 ranked items. For example, suppose that item number one on the final group list was "To inform the community of the need for additional funds" and that the level of clarity was rated clear and the level of difficulty moderate. Discussion of the four questions might result as follows:

What must be done? [1]An open forum should be established to share educational financial needs with the community. [2]PTA groups should be informed of the need for financial aid. [3]Local and State governmental leaders should be informed of the need for additional funding to promote student development.

How can plans be accomplished? [1]A letter from the board of education can be sent to the local newspaper to announce the open forum. [2]An emissary from the task group can be sent to a PTA meeting to announce the need for additional funds. [3]Letters from all informed and interested persons within the school and community can be sent to Local and State governmental officials indicating a need for additional funding.

When should action be initiated? [1]Announcement of the intended forum should be released immediately. [2]The PTA President should be contacted immediately to schedule attendance of the group's emissary at the next PTA meeting. [3]Letters should be solicited from school and community before the end of the current school year and sent to governmental officials before the end of the current fiscal year.

Who should be responsible for initiation, action, and follow through? 1 The President of the Board of Education should send the letter to the newspaper announcing the open forum. 2 The Project Director should contact the President of the PTA and plan to speak at the next PTA meeting. 3 The Chief school official in each of the city schools should solicit teachers to address letters to governmental officials. The President of the Board of Education should solicit the same from the community.

Conclusion

The counselor can become an effective agent of change if he develops skills which will enlist representative members of educational teams in the change process. It has been offered that innovative uses of techniques such as the force field will enable counselors to solicit input from various sources while providing a means for the development of sound educational alternatives. The vehicle for interested parties to bring forth creative ideas, to test these ideas through group interactive processes, and to implement plans in both field tests and actual practice is apparent.

Important, also, is the fact that educators can innovate ideas and initiate action from the power base of the task group. Action initiated at this level can insulate all participants and initiators from individual political pressure and facilitate more open, honest inspection, criticism, and implementation of ideas dealing with institutional change.

Students should be major recipients of the employment of group processes. Ideas originating in one-to-one relationships can be advocated and acted upon by counselors through task group methods. In addition, counselors can involve students as task group members and thereby provide the opportunity for direct student input.

Adoption of methodology prescribed can present counselors with an opportunity to be leaders in the educational community. Effectiveness of methods discussed depends on sound organization and leadership as well as on knowledge of group variables and communication processes. Counselors, it would seem, should be well suited to fill this need.

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APPENDIX

Presentations at the Second Annual University of Wisconsin Department of Counseling and Guidance Summer Workshop

Presentations

(1) "Wisconsin Vocational System," presented by Tom Diener and Bob DeMuth, both of the Bureau for Pupil Services, Wisconsin State Department of Public Instructions.

Description: The Wisconsin Instant Information System for Students and Counselors (WISC) combines data processing and microfilm systems into a unique format intended to bring recent and reliable occupational information to students and counselors about occupations in Wisconsin which do not require a college degree for job entry. In addition, public and private approved schools in Wisconsin which offer training related to many of the occupations described are part of the deck. The card deck and an index comprise the software for WISC which are available free upon request to any public or private secondary school and other public agencies which may make use of the WISC information.

Users of WISC must have a microfilm reader or reader/printer which will magnify the information contained in the microfilm aperture back to its original size. The over 300 cards which comprise the WISC deck represents the equivalent of 1,200 8-1/2" x 11" pages of hard copy. Because of the relative inexpensiveness of materials and the flexibility in production procedures updating of materials can and will be accomplished periodically with no cost to participating schools or agencies.

Further inquiries regarding WISC or participation in the program may be directed to Mr. Diener or Mr. DeMuth at the DPI offices, 126 Langdon Street, Madison, 53702.

(2) "Selected Images for the Future," presented by Leo Goldman, Professor of Education at the City University of New York, and Editor, Personnel and Guidance Journal.

Description: Leo Goldman focused on the year 2000 and encouraged the workshop participants to think about the following: 1) What social problems are likely to exist

in the year 2000 and how should we prepare others, and ourselves, to cope with these problems? 2) What will people be like in the year 2000, i.e., socially and psychologically? 3) Will there be need for "counselors" in the year 2000 as we know them today, or will we need to prepare a new breed of counselor? 4) Along more general lines, but with reference to the year 2000, how do we prepare others to grapple successfully with the unknown? On the basis of the material in his presentation, the underlying theme of Dr. Goldman's talk appears to be that we need to stress an experiential approach to life; in order to prepare one's self for the unknown it is perhaps necessary to experience a variety of life situations--to succeed at some and fail at others, but in the long run coming to feel, understand, learn, grow, and know.

(3) "Application of Computer Assisted Programs and Systems to Vocational development, Theory, and Practice," presented by Joanne Harris, Vocational Counselor at Willowbrook High School, Villa Park, Illinois.

Description: JoAnne Harris has been instrumental in the development of Project CVIS (Computerized Vocational Information System) at Willowbrook High School in Villa Park, Illinois. Her presentation was designed to provide workshop participants with a basic understanding of not only the CVIS Project but also the underlying function and performance capabilities of the computer. Many guidance persons are coming to see the computer as a useful tool in their work. With counselors being called upon to assume more responsibilities than before, the addition of a machine that would render the counselor more efficient without jeopardizing his or her relationship with students would be a welcome addition in many school systems. From a booklet describing CVIS comes this note:

> The basic purpose of the CVIS project has been and is to provide students with a sophisticated tool with which to explore information about self, occupations, and educational opportunities. The intent is to provide accurate data in an interactive, interesting way. The hypothesis is that students will synthesize knowledge about self and career opportunities into informed decisions with maturation and time.

Programs have been developed that permit Project CVIS to be used at junior high, senior high, and community college levels. Stored within the computer is the school record of each student. Information from this record, as well as the entire 'conversation' between student and computer, is displayed upon a cathode ray tube (a television-like screen) which is situated before the student. The computer is also programmed to ". . . allow the student to review past information, to note discrepancies between objective data and tentative plans, and to narrow alternatives (from CVIS booklet)." Persons desiring further information about Project CVIS or details regarding CVIS training workshops may write PROJECT CVIS, Willowbrook High School, 1250 S. Ardmore Avenue, Villa Park, Illinois 60181.

(4) "On Line System," presented by William Prochnow, Chief of Counseling Services with the Wisconsin State Employment Service (a division of the Wisconsin Department of Industry, Labor and Human Relations).

Description: Mr. William Prochnow made a presentation to the Workshop on the activities of the Employment Service and how that agency could be used as a resource for counselors in other institutions.

A background of the Employment Service and its related Manpower Programs like the Work Incentive (WIN) and Concentrated Employment Programs (CEP) were discussed as they relate to the general goals of the Agency. These goals include:

Helping people become successfully employed.
Helping employers meet their Manpower needs.
Helping communities develop their Manpower resources.

The employment counseling process as used with the Agency was explained along with the various techniques used by counselors in the Agency. These included the use of group counseling, aptitude and/or interest testing, and other assessment approaches as well as a wide variety in counseling techniques used by counselors in District Offices.

Emphasis was put on inter-agency cooperation such as exists between the Employment Service and the Department of Public Instruction, Vocational Rehabilitation, Probation and Parole, and numberous other helping agencies.

Material on labor market and occupational information as developed by the Agency was distributed to Workshop participants.

(5) "Use of Audio-Visual Materials in Counseling and Guidance," presented by Stuart L. Rubner, doctoral student, University of Wisconsin-Madison.

Description: Stuart Rubner discussed the use of audio-visual materials in the career planning process. Several publishing houses produce films, film strips, audio tapes, games, etc., relating to the area of career education and such materials could easily be integrated into existing career education programs or course outlines. Counselors and career education personnel were encouraged to prepare their own audio-visual materials or to get their students involved in the preparation of slides, films, charts, or whatever the imagination can create. Should assistance be needed in the preparation of materials, qualified high school audio-visual faculty or local university audio-visual personnel should be contacted. It was pointed out that presenting material visually, as well as verbally and via the printed word, enables students to retain a much greater percentage of what is being studied.

(6) "Digital Information Access Line," presented by Steven Saffian, Director of the Campus Assistant Center, University of Wisconsin-Madison.

Description: Steve Saffian discussed the DIAL system, a new communications network sponsored by the Division of Student Affairs and the College of Letters and Science at the University of Wisconsin-Madison. His personal description of this program follows.

> I would like to broaden the topic and describe for you the role of a variety of communications media in the work of the Division of Student Affairs. We now have a department of Campus Assistance and Communications and over the past two years have used ourselves or sponsored the use of print, film, multi-media, t.v., tape and a varied and expansive use of the telephone.
>
> Philosophically we go back to the late 1960's and the period of intense student activism on the Madison Campus. As participant observers, the Division staff concluded that although the issues created the divisiveness in the campus community, our inability to communicate adequately with our students, staff, and public perpetuated the crisis. Furthermore, we needed to maintain the personal quality of student personnel services while at the same time increase our impact on larger and larger numbers of students. Hefferlin

and Phillips in Information Services for Academic Administration described the situation thusly: "Many students, professors, and staff members are poorly informed about their institutions. And worst of all, even more of them feel that they are uninformed, and consequently, that they are 'victimized, powerless institutional pawns.'"

On closer inspection of our collective experience we realized that it was not the absence of information which accounted for the communications breakdown but what Toffler has called "information overload." The campus community was and is literally flooded on a daily basis with catalogues, memos, handouts, brochures, etc. A little applied research reveals that a prospective reader quickly becomes frustrated with the volume and rejects the whole lot.

Information tends to be producer-oriented. In the case of the University, the various departments that generate information for students and other publics would decide what, how much, and in what format to disseminate information. The first responses to this problem were instinctive. The philosophical base has been added along the way, but a close tally of consumer use suggests that we are on the way.

We are now providing several information access alternatives in addition to the traditional use of print thereby giving the user some choices as to quantity, format and timing.

Like It Is, the original venture into communications, is a staff-oriented newsletter. It is designed to keep Division staff up to date on issues and happenings across the broad student personnel spectrum.

The Campus Assistance Center via telephone and a walk-in center provides a way in which the University of Wisconsin-Madison can respond to many of the personal and institutional needs of students. The Center makes information accessible to individuals at a specific point in time and in a format that relates to an individualized problem or question. During the academic year just completed, over 40,000 student contacts were reported by the Center.

The Digital Information Access Line (DIAL) is a new communications system which disseminates via telephone taped information to students, staff and faculty on the U.W.-Madison campus. DIAL tapes are available 24

hours a day. DIAL complements the Campus Assistance Center by providing short, authoritative and uniform responses to the most frequently asked questions. Still in the experimental stage, the DIAL tape library includes 36 presentations, each one running from 2½ to 4½ minutes in length.

Recently the Division of Student Affairs made its first venture into television using the campus' closed circuit system to telecast the status of assignment committee courses and other related information to students via seven t.v. monitors during registration week.

Our most sophisticated project to date is the multi-media show. This project uses multi-media techniques, i.e., a combination of slides, film, and tape to place the audience in a complete audio-video environment. This particular show was designed to help new students get a feeling for life on the Madison campus.

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summer workshop in counseling and guidance

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volume 3

3rd annual workshop symposium report

COUNSELOR EDUCATION--A COMPLEMENTARY APPROACH: ADMINISTRATION, SUPERVISION ACCOUNTABILITY AND EVALUATION

Edited by

Charles J. Pulvino
Stuart L. Rubner
University of Wisconsin, Madison

Volume III: 3rd Annual Workshop Symposium Report -- Department of Counseling and Guidance, University of Wisconsin, Madison.

1973

PREFACE

The 1973 Counseling and Guidance workshop was the third in a series of three summer programs. This workshop sequence was originated to provide practicing counselors with an opportunity to update their current level of functioning, to allow participants to benefit from interaction with practicing counselors from both within and outside the state, and to provide a means for resident participants to obtain a professional life certificate in the State of Wisconsin. The initial program (during the Summer of 1971) focused upon individual counseling processes. The concentration of Workshop number two (during the Summer of 1972) was on group counseling processes. Complete descriptions of both workshops can be found in respective symposium reports, Summer Workshop in Counseling and Guidance, Volume 1 (1971) and Volume 2 (1972). Plans for repeating all three modules, in sequential fashion, are presently being made. Since presentations are not dependent upon one another, students can enter during any module, attend three summer sessions sequentially, and be completely "in phase."

The major emphasis of the third workshop was upon the use of administrative and supervisory strategies in counseling and guidance with particular attention paid to systematic approaches to accountability and evaluation. Major presentations of topics were made by Dr. Richard Koeppe, Dr. David Cook, Dr. Loren Benson, Mr. Robert Melone, and by staff members of the Department of Counseling and Guidance at the University of Wisconsin, Madison. In all cases the presentation of materials and ideas was accomplished through an informal lecture-discussion teaching approach. In addition to major presentations, small group discussions were utilized to follow up ideas presented. In both lectures and small groups participating counselors were encouraged to pose questions of both a theoretical and practical nature and to develop strategies for implementing ideas into practice in their personal professional settings. Hopefully, the end result was a sharing of ideas, a better understanding of theoretical principles, and the integration of theory with practice.

A new sequence of programs is being planned with the initial phase slated for the Summer of 1974. New directions in content and procedure will be determined by a thorough analysis of participant evaluative responses to offerings during the first three summers. Our intent is to keep the workshop current and attuned to the needs of practicing counselors. Continued evaluation and systematic change will assure that this task is accomplished.

C. J. P.

S. L. R.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

For the hours they spent preparing typewritten copy for printing we gratefully recognize Mary Ellis, of the Research and Guidance Laboratory for Superior Students, and Rosemary Hopkins, of the Department of Counseling and Guidance.

For their time and effort in writing manuscripts for this volume and/or participating in the 1973 workshop we sincerely thank the visiting and UW Counseling and Guidance faculties.

Finally, for their commitment to personal growth and professional self-renewal, our special appreciation to the workshop students. They, the field they represent, and those they serve are the true reasons for this program's existence.

C. J. P.

S. L. R.

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SECTION I

COUNSELING AND GUIDANCE PERSPECTIVES

THE SCHOOL COUNSELOR AND INDIRECT INTERVENTION

Gail F. Farwell
University of Wisconsin-Madison

There are many ways in which counselors can aid and be of service. This aid and service may be direct and be applied through either individual or group procedures with the counselee. The counseling and group work is implemented on request by the counselee, on the basis of referral by significant others, or on the basis of counselor initiation. I have always taken the stance that this intervention is undertaken on the basis of a conceptualization of assumptions about the human being and his growth on one hand and the consideration of goals the counselor has for his work.

In my judgment the primary clientele served by the school counselor are the boys and girls of the institution in which the counselor works. In serving these subjects the school counselor has other means at his disposal for influence other than counseling or group work directly with boys and girls. Exerting influence on institutional policy, institutional structure and other institutional personnel may be the best means for bringing about change that will enhance the growth of boys and girls and best reach the goals of the educational institution.

I am going to divide the following discussion into two main parts: program administration and supervision. As in other forms of intervention the school counselor may employ, there must be goals in mind as the raison d'etre for expending one's knowledge and skill. The school counselor gains his sanction for his work from his employer - in this case, the school board. It is a major responsibility of this board to establish policy and goals for the institution. This does not mean this is done in a vacuum, nor does it mean that either the policy or goals are static. Change, growth and modification are long-standing messages from the historic past. The school counselor, at times, will serve his primary clientele more profoundly by being programmatically concerned.

Program Administration

Programmatic leadership by the school counselor is dependent upon his perspective of the total educational enterprise as well as the place

of the guidance program in relation to this enterprise. What is unique and what is shared? In this system, what is the interface among the various services provided? How can the school counselor influence professional behavior that is implemented in classrooms, in offices, on playgrounds and athletic fields?

I am taking the stance at the outset that the school counselor is the champion of individuality. He is most concerned about individual idiosyncrasies and development; his commitment is to a constant awareness of individual differences; and he recognizes that goals for one student are different for the next. However, recognition of this individuality must be juxtaposed against the backdrop of family, community, institution and in sum, the social context that is the operational setting for the boy or girl.

Before I proceed further, a brief explication of goals for the counseling program is in order. In the recent past I have had occasion to read several reports from school systems about objectives and purposes. The development of knowledge and skills for gainful employment, of citizenship and social consciousness, of means for leisure pursuit, and the recognition of the uniqueness of the self are common components. The objectives/purposes are not always expressed this way but my interpretation of the meaning intended falls within these classifications.

A breakdown of the purposes places emphasis on several distinct yet interrelated processes the individual needs to possess to effectively operate his system in relation to the myriad of systems he is going to confront. As I try to think of the operation of the human system through a lifetime, I can best see outcomes in terms of processes rather than products. The products are important and significant because they are of the "instant" and the decision may be critical. On the other hand, whether an individual is 14 or 74 he is involved in decision-making. Does the individual have an understanding of his decision-making network/process? It is quite proper to provide support to a counselee for a viable choice; but, I argue it is much more critical that he have an understanding of his process because tomorrow there are cases for further decision making.

It has been my stance that the ultimate outcome of counseling is to assist the individual in developing a "self-competency". This self-competency is defined in terms of the acquisition of processes necessary for the development and maintenance of the person's system as it interfaces and interacts with other systems within the environment. Sometimes these other systems are persons, sometimes institutions, and sometimes

larger components of the society such as community, organizations or legal-political structures. The components of self-competency are not discrete, but rather become highly interrelated and interdependent as maturity is attained. I have described self-competency in terms of seven processes - assimilating, demonstrating, reporting, integrating, decision-making (choosing), accomodating (coping, adapting), and creating (re-structuring). Briefly, I will explicate.

ASSIMILATING - means the taking in of experience, of knowledge, of ideas.

DEMONSTRATING - reacting or responding in non-verbal ways from simplistic physical response (crying, blushing) to complicated performance such as playing a piano or hitting a baseball.

REPORTING - the employing of spoken or written language in explaining oneself, one's ideas, one's knowledge, etc.

INTEGRATING - the process of making connectors among the myriad experiences one has. Integration includes the concept of dis-integration. It involves keeping and throwing away experiences. Change and growth and modification are at the core of the integrating process. Each hour brings new experience; what I assimilate and how I tie that in with the residue of other experience, to say this is where I stand now, is what I mean by integration.

DECISION-MAKING - the weighing of the alternatives about one's self in light of the variables presented by the opportunity is deciding or choosing. Knowledge, values and attitudes are part and parcel of this process.

ACCOMODATING - some things "out there" can't be changed. If the individual is to proceed with maturity he must have a process of accomodating, coping or adapting to those things, institutions or people he can't change or modify.

CREATING - in his own unique way the individual initiates, reorganizes, re-structures ideas, events and situations. He uses this competency as he reaches out to bring about change.

With goals in mind accompanied by the assumptions the counselor has about people and his work with them, the school counselor is in a position to

establish, maintain, modify and evaluate his program of service. A first step is to assess the institutional parameters - school board policy, administrative expectations, curricular offerings and teacher competencies and attitudes, the interface of the school system and the other community systems.

It is from these assessments that appropriate programmatic endeavors can be undertaken. From this base, the school counselor has grounds for saying this intervention strategy is the appropriate one to employ. If on the basis of his understanding of student needs and purposes, institutional structures need modifying, the school counselor then has substantive information to recommend policy change, to suggest strengths in curriculum that need to be expanded, to offer ideas about limitations in opportunity within the community for student use of leisure time and interest. These are only offered as suggestions.

I am taking the position that we as counselors cannot operate from an expectancy that the student must always accomodate the system. I am in full agreement that competency in accomodation (coping or adapting) is one goal. But there are times when the system is in error or is deficient; at these times the counselor should be pro-active in initiating action to modify the system. In this way his viability will not be suspect. He will be trying to meet student needs and above all, he will be meeting educational objectives.

The foregoing should provide some input regarding programmatic administration. The counselor cannot "just fly" into activities; he must operate from an informed base. Their are issues, policies and activities which must be confronted if there is to be positive growth for students. It is as important for the school counselor to intervene in this manner as it is for him to counsel or to engage in group work.

Supervision and Continuing Education

Another area of intervention that has a salutary effect on the individual student is the improvement of competency among the professionals and para-professionals that have guidance program responsibility. It is assumed by many that every professional educator has guidance responsibilities; yet many educators have no preparation for implementing these responsibilities. Within the concepts of in-service and continuation education it is quite possible for the school counselor to improve the total service to the students.

It is not infrequent that students turn to teachers for assistance in answering questions, sharing experience or solving problems. In

intervening, the teacher uses the interview. Yet, how many teacher education programs emphasize interview skill development? On the other hand, this is a common component of counselor education. In teacher preparation, skill development in group instruction is emphasized; but, it is seldom that there is skill development in group guidance procedures. I am using these areas as two examples where counselors can serve the total staff and student body by conducting training sessions and offering supervision in areas that are common to and strengths within a broad guidance program. Many professional educators have little expertise in career development with the attendant input of career information. At this time in history there is a large hue and cry about career education. To me these are major guidance implications attendant to curricular development in this area. School counselors have major contributions to make.

For the recipient, supervision is both rewarding and threatening. It is rewarding because of the immediate feedback; it is individual and the goals are uniquely focused; change and growth are evidenced readily. It is threatening because confrontation with the specifics of one's behavior is invariably present; there is evaluation; supervisor expectations are usually considerable.

The above points should indicate to the individual employing supervision as an intervention strategy, the necessity of establishing and maintaining a good relationship with the supervisee. The components of a good counseling relationship serve well in supervision. Another critical point is for the supervisor and supervisee to come to an early understanding regarding the goals to be sought. It has been my experience that supervisee's who know what I am trying to accomplish and who feel free to say what they want to achieve move into supervision with enthusiasm and industry.

An example may be of assistance. This example is taken from the situation of developing counseling skills and competency. If in the supervisory intervention the school counselor is working toward competency in test interpretation he would identify different goals to be achieved. As I enter into a supervisory relationship with a counselor I share with him this set of goals and explain that, to varying degrees, these are things I'm going to be trying to accomplish. The supervisee has the opportunity to offer other possibilities, modifications, or deletions. By taking this initiative the supervisee is not in doubt about the direction to be taken by the supervisor. This is as helpful to the supervisor; for if he is conscious of his goals and the assumptions for his work, then the interventions he employs have greater meaning and are more likely to be appropriate to the task at hand.

Example:

From: Gail F. Farwell

Re: Supervision Goals - Practicum and Internship

It is the purpose of practicum and internship to assist the student in integrating theory and practice. The practice involves the counselees, the setting, and the significant others impacting on the life of the counselee. I will be seeking certain outcomes as I work with you. They are:

1. Self (personal) confrontation, encounter, and growth.
2. Understanding of theoretical constructs employed and how these become manifest in practice.
3. Deeper understanding of situational variables that influence counselor and counselee behavior.
4. A refined concept of the role and function of counselors.
5. Artistry in communication as employed in counseling and consultation.
6. Skills in analyzing the counseling process through the utilization of audiotape, videotape, case study reports, etc.
7. Effective demonstration of instrumentation use in counseling, i.e., tests, informational resources, etc.
8. Develop skills for "self-supervision" after termination of the formal supervisory relationship in the preparation group.

The reader can observe that these goals have a certain amount of generality. This is necessary because each supervisee presents his own idiosyncratic system and his own needs. The meeting of individuality is negotiated. At the same time the supervisee is not surprised when the supervisor attempts to get at the value-attitudinal-experiential system that serves as the base for operation. This type of encounter is specified in #1. This does not mean that threat, defensiveness, or anxiety may not be present. It is encumbent upon the supervisor to build an effective relationship. In working on this goal it may be that the supervisory relationship begins to approximate a counseling approach. Cautions need to be exercised here; at the same time, to ignore the "personal system" of the supervisee is to abandon the fundamental operational structure for counseling intervention.

To proceed, having goals in mind allows the supervisor to identify his areas of intervention. Following are the areas of intervention resulting

from the identification of goals. I identify the area as "supervisory attending behaviors". In what categories does the supervisor intervene?

Counselor's self structure
Client's self structure
Relationship
Procedures (Strategies)
Content
Goals
Theory
Setting
Accountability

By coding the attending behaviors, the supervisor is able to ascertain what he is doing in view of the goals he has established for his supervision. Immediate feedback to the supervisee about his behaviors is one of the big gains. This feedback is better identified as "evaluation" because inevitably there is reinforcement regarding those positive features of the supervisee's actions or else the supervisor is offering suggestions about procedures, clarification of theoretical postulates, introduction to new instrumentation, confrontation respecting the intrusion of one's morals or values, or misinterpretation of the behavior exhibited on tape. An example of an evaluation form consonant with the "goals" and "supervisory attending behaviors" specified previously is presented.

Practicum Evaluation Form

In assessing practicum behavior, make critical inquiry about the areas specified. Utilize the following rating scale and provide a specific explanation for the rating.

RATING SCALE: (Add an explanation for the rating of each topic.)

1) Inferior Quality
2) Real Quality
3) Acceptable Quality
4) Good Quality
5) Superior Quality

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1. Flexibility of response technique
2. Adroitness in integrating clues
3. Command of theoretical assumptions
4. Initiative and performance as a counselor
5. Ability in evaluating gains made by the counselee
6. Ability to evaluate what is done with counseling material
7. Sensitivity to feelings and ability to react to these in counseling
8. Sensitivity to the factual aspects in counseling and ability to react to these
9. Awareness of and utility in the sub-processes of counseling
10. Awareness of and utility in the overall counseling process
11. Capability in analyzing what I hear on tape
12. Capability in coping with and profiting from supervisory contacts
13. Facility of self-appraisal (supervisee) in counseling contacts and relationships
14. Adequacy of knowledge about setting and the interface of counselor role, environment, and counselee both in the practicum setting and the projected locale of employment.
15. Overall assessment

The main theme of the foregoing is to impress on the reader the desirability of specifying in supervision regardless of the input area a schema for proceeding:

Goals ⟶ Intervention ⟶ Evaluation

An example of how this is employed when the developing of counseling competency is the end product was presented. It is necessary to think of the sub-sets within the broader category because it is within these smaller units that behavior is actually observed, feedback provided, and integration into the larger whole then accomplished.

The needs of local staffs will serve as the guideline for the development of continuation education and the employment of supervisory intervention. If a fully involved school staff in the guidance process is to result it is quite possible that the school counselor will have to provide the leadership. The hallmark of a profession is its constant willingness to initiate and implement opportunities for new learning. A profession committed to serving youth in their "striving for maturity" must take advantage of both direct and indirect means of providing relevant and quality assistance. I see administrative and supervisory intervention as an indirect means of serving youth. The school counselor comes in direct contact through individual and group procedures; indirectly he may assist through consultation and continuation education.

"WOULD YOU TELL ME, PLEASE, WHICH WAY I OUGHT TO GO FROM HERE?"

Marshall P. Sanborn
University of Wisconsin-Madison

"Would you tell me, please, which way I ought to go from here?"

"That depends a good deal on where you want to get to," said the Cat.

"I don't much care where---" said Alice.

"Then it doesn't matter which way you go," said the Cat.

"---so long as I get somewhere," said Alice.

"Oh, you're sure to do that," said the Cat, "if you only walk long enough."

(From Lewis Carroll's Alice In Wonderland, previously noted by Meyering, 1964)

No situation I know of is more analogous to the plight of the school counselor than the situation in the passage above. And, enigmatic as the Chesire Cat may seem, no Cat could give better advice to someone who is confused and uncertain about which way to go from wherever he (or she) is. In these days of relative austerity in schools, people are beginning to want to know where school functionaries are getting; and whether programs and personnel in the school are fruitful expenditures in terms of goals worth achieving. "Where are you going?" they say. "How can we determine whether you are getting there with our young people?" Nearly all school faculty and administrators feel the press of these questions, but perhaps none have any more difficulty than counselors do formulating satisfactory answers.

If we survive as a profession, we need to learn to use more exact language than we have used in the past to describe our goals, and to provide more concrete information than we have provided in the past to assess progress toward those goals. The problem of being satisfactorily accountable to the public is not so much a problem, I think, of how to measure our progress.

It is a problem of how to set meaningful goals, how to program in the direction of those goals, and how to maintain integrity in our daily routines so that the time and energy we spend is fruitful in terms of the basic goals we seek to attain. If we could learn to do these things well, then our accountability would be evident. Because of our systematic intervention in the experience pattern of the students, because of active involvement in guidance tasks by many or all participants in the school curriculum, because of the visibility of an active and orderly guidance program, accountability would be better insured.

In the material which follows I have tried to outline a set of ordered and interrelated activities which seem to me to be essential features of a good school guidance program. If properly implemented and emphasized, I believe they would provide young people with the basic guidance experiences needed in school to the fullest extent that the school can offer them. I believe also they would provide the counselor with a proper focus for guidance work, and help him (or her) avoid drifting, as so many counselors already have, into the position of chief trouble shooter, test giver, crisis intervener, general flunky, substitute teacher, and loose end picker upper around the school. Persons who occupy such positions, either in total or in part, occupy them mainly because neither they themselves nor anybody else in the school understands the more important things which ought to be going on in the name of guidance. Accountability cannot exist where these understandings do not prevail.

Before listing the features which are essential to a good school guidance program, I wish to list several postulates which I have come to believe are true and which are important to consider in clarifying the school counselor's role:

1. An adequate school counseling and guidance program is essentially a developmental program, and not a remedial or preventive one. This is not to say that nothing remedial or preventive goes on in school counseling. But the primary characteristics of the program, both in purpose and in process, are focused on building, not on salvage and repair. The counselor's specialty is education, not remediation. If she (or he) is actually to prevent anything untoward, there is no way of knowing ahead of time what this might be. Neither counselors, nor teachers and administrators, nor students can get much of a sense of direction from a crisis intervention approach to school guidance.

The good counselor does not enter the life of the student at some point where things have gone awry. The counselor has the responsibility to initiate an orderly program of experiences which may lead to positive personal, social, educational, and vocational growth of individuals. He will encounter crises from time to time, but he intervenes whether there is a crisis or not. Crises are relevant to the counselor's work, as are any factors which enhance or impede progress toward developmental

goals, but crises are kept in proper perspective in the total pattern of counselor activities, and are not the predominant factors which underwrite daily routines and functions. The predominant factor is a coherent program (curriculum, if you will) based on goals and objectives the counselor can serve in the interest of fulfilling the mission of the school.

2. The school counselor's role ought to be essentially proactive and not reactive. Unlike the psychotherapist, the school counselor does not "hang out a shingle" and then wait for troubled individuals to walk through his door. He (or she) should go after individuals and groups with a series of activities designed to help them learn to think about themselves, their environment, and the important issues and choice points in their lives. She (or he) should attempt to assist other school people in providing a simplified environment wherein learning steps can be ordered and implemented. Individual interviews with pupils should usually be carried on with a suitable background of self-exploration experiences prior to the interview--experiences which the counselor has planned and instigated and which prepare both counselor and counselee to use short-term one-to-one contacts efficiently.

3. The counselor's responsibility is not only to assist individual students to change and improve their relations with self, society, and the school, but also to improve the way the school relates to individual students. Because of his (or her) position and function in the school, the counselor is able to secure an overview of student-school relationships and needs. With this information at hand the counselor has a responsibility to try to assist teachers and administrators to improve the school's ability to respond appropriately to the characteristics and needs of individuals and groups. When evaluation of school counseling is done, it should include not only consideration of student growth and change, but also consideration of the impact the counselor has had on school practice.

4. Personal, social, educational, and vocational problems and issues are often inextricably interrelated. It makes no sense to me to try to categorize school counselors as individuals who deal with educational and vocational questions but not with personal-social ones. Whether such a separation can be made or not depends entirely upon the degree of personal investment a counselee has in educational and vocational concerns. This varies from counselee to counselee, but no school counselor can expect to work very long without encountering a fair number of students who have intense personal values, feelings, and motives connected with their educational and vocational goals and problems. I know of no reasonable way to sort out the educational-vocational from the personal, so as to deal only with one and not with the other in a counseling relationship. For many individuals a career is life. It is their principal means of self-expression. I believe this is very

likely to be true even among those who write books and give lectures to the effect that it is not.

5. Contrary to popular opinion, good school counseling is as complicated and demanding as the work of a psychotherapist. Counseling can involve any degree of depth or intensity. It often must necessarily involve examination of thought, attitudes, values, feelings, motives, hopes, fears, and objectives hitherto unrecognized by the counselee. A good counseling program is complex, as we shall discuss later, and often calls for a wider variety of skills and activities, more systematic long-range planning, and sometimes a more complicated approach to integration and dissemination of information than does psychotherapy. Often also, it requires skillful solicitation and coordination of efforts of other persons in the counselee's life, and highly concerted efforts to effect environmental changes in circumstances where strong resistance to appropriate change is present.

Changes sought and attained by the counselee may be "minimum" or they may be very significant, with a profound effect on the counselee's future. Good counseling does not differ from psychotherapy in this respect.

Nor is "normalcy" of clientele a suitable criterion. All kinds of individuals attend schools. The current trend toward de-institutionalization of "non-normal" persons probably means that even a wider range of personalities will be in schools in the future. School counselors must program for and deal with all these individuals, whether "normal" or not, and whether they are engaged in psychotherapy or not. Thus the school counselor must expect to provide useful experiences to a much broader range of individuals than the psychotherapist is likely to encounter.

As an aside which perhaps is not much aside, I feel compelled to add here that it is foolish to believe that "normalcy" is a condition which we can afford to ignore in school counseling. It is just as foolish to believe that non-normalcy is a condition which requires remediation.

To reiterate the essential points: the primary purposes of school counseling are developmental and not remedial, and the counselor should be primarily a proactive agent in the student's life and not merely a reactive one. For the most part, counseling interviews with individual students should be predicated on prior work the counselor has done to prepare youngsters for counseling. He does not depend primarily on long series of interviews with students as his means of assisting them, but rather on shorter term interviewing contacts which fit an intricate pattern of pre and post interview activities. This pattern is further explained below.

Clarifying the School Counselor's Role

School counseling ought to be viewed as a program rather than as a service. The program should consist of several interrelated activities which are designed and coordinated to achieve the goals school counselors serve.

The essence of a good school counseling program is a sound communication system whereby information and points of view from various persons in the student's life--teachers, parents, administrators, the counselor, the student--can be freely given, received, and put to use so as to enhance student self-awareness and self-understanding and to improve the ability of others to respond and plan appropriately for the student. Although there may be a number of ways to classify school counselor activities, I have chosen to classify them as follows:

The Appraisal Function

The counselor studies the individual student. He (or she) assembles relevant information from several sources regarding each student. She (or he)* provides meaningful information about the student to the student himself, to parents, and to school staff members. He assists them in interpretation of such information, and he solicits their cooperation in constructive planning and action based on appraisal data.

But a good appraisal program is more than merely a means of securing information. It is a program whereby the counselor can help students learn how to think about themselves while others learn how to think about them more effectively. A well ordered appraisal program will serve both these purposes. It will lead both students and others step by step through processes designed to stimulate their thinking on specified topics, to improve their ability to assign meaning to information from other sources on those topics, and to identify situations where additional information is needed.

The appraisal program, as any other aspect of the school program, should be ordered so as to begin at simplified levels and proceed through more complex ones as students develop and mature. Everything else the counselor does will usually depend, for its quality, on the quality of the appraisal program.

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*By this time I am becoming weary of attending to the possibility that a counselor may be either male or female. From this point on I shall use the pronoun "he", having none without gender to turn to.

Essential steps. The appraisal program involves five essential steps, none of which can be bypassed or omitted without sacrificing quality. These steps are:

1) Activities designed to generate and secure ideas and information concerning the individual student from various sources--student behavior, performance, and point of view; information from parents, faculty, and others.

2) Collecting, assembling, ordering, digesting, integrating the above.

3) Interpretation, assigning meaning to appraisal data.

4) Feedback of information and interpretations to those who generated it, resulting in both validation and modification of points of view.

5) Follow-through activities. The various functionaries in the student's school life modify plans and actions on the basis of steps 1-4 above.

In order to implement these steps adequately, the counselor must promote a free-flowing, open system of communication. He does not usually collect information about the student without intentions to communicate such information appropriately to the student. The practice of obtaining IQ's on all the students and then keeping such information secret from the students, for example, cannot be justified as a counselor activity. The school may have some reason for doing it, but the counselor does not.

The responsibility to provide useful feedback to those who need it poses special issues for school counselors which go beyond those common in more clinical settings. Even though it is not systematically sought in the appraisal program, information will come to the counselor from time to time which is highly private and confidential. It is a consistently recurring problem to know how to tell the difference between information which should be divulged and information which should not. The school counselor, in most states, does not have privileged communication. He cannot withhold, willy nilly, any information which comes his way. Even if he could, he can hardly expect to have much of an impact if he does not communicate accurately and effectively with teachers, administrators and parents who control the life and experience of a minor child. He is almost totally dependent on these persons for accomplishment of the developmental goals of school counseling.

Sound implementation of a feedback system is critical to the success of school counseling, and is by no means a simple task. To my way of thinking it requires skill in making practical and ethical judgments far beyond

that required of most professionals.

Expected outcomes. An adequate appraisal program should result in better student self-knowledge and development of abilities to think on topics regarding the self. It should yield concrete examples of the individual's own ideas and thoughts on a variety of topics which are important considerations in personal, social, educational, and vocational development. It should also result in increased knowledge of teachers and other school personnel with the characteristics and needs of individual students and groups of students. It should lead to better awareness of a variety of viewpoints available regarding students, and of the reasons why differing viewpoints exist. It should lead to a better balance of personal attention on all students, and not merely on those who are troubled, or who trouble us. Finally, it should lead to the generation of ideas and the taking of action toward specific goals based on individual student characteristics and on the characteristics and needs of groups.

Appraisal activities are not brought into play at the time the student encounters a problem or gets into trouble. They are brought into play at the time he enters school and are sustained throughout his attendance in the school. They systematically keep us in touch with the student--trouble or no trouble--and they stimulate his thinking along lines we believe are important during the process of growing toward independent adulthood.

The Counseling Function

Of all the definitions of counseling which I have seen, I like this one best:

> Counseling is many things. It is a technique of informing and assessing. It is a vehicle designed to modify behavior. It is an experience in communication. Most of all, I think, it is a mutual search for meaning in one's life, with the growth of love as an essential concomitant and consequence of the search. To me, all the rest is fairly trivial or downright senseless without the search for meaning. Indeed, that search is really what living is, and counseling is just a special intensification of the quest.
>
> R. W. Strowig[1]

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[1]This quotation appears on a plaque which is in the University of Wisconsin, Department of Counseling and Guidance, whereon recipients of the Strowig Memorial Award are recorded.

This definition, better than any I know, carries all the connotations I associate with the best potentialities of school counseling. In it, the focus is on positive growth and development, and on the relationship of counseling to daily life. In schools, counseling should be just that--an intensified, personal activity focused on discovery of the self.

School counseling, for the most part, should be predicated on prior activities and experiences the student has been exposed to for the purpose of achieving self-discovery goals. Oftentimes counseling is initiated by the counselor, but as the student is given proper background experiences, he should come to know counseling as a means of communicating questions, examining issues, solving problems, making choices, laying plans for his own life. It is likely that as this occurs more counseling interviews will be student initiated. Impetus for seeking counseling, or impetus for a particular focus of a counseling interview, is likely to come from a combination of factors prior to the interview--some of which are factors introduced into the life of the student by the counselor.

There are perhaps five qualifying features to look for in good school counseling:

1) It should qualify according to the definition of counseling (Strowig) properly focused for school counseling work.

2) It should exemplify relevance of the counseling interview to prior and current appraisal activities, and to the current life of the student in school.

3) It should show how the student can utilize the counselor to discuss a topic which is important to the student at the time, even though the interview was counselor initiated.

4) It should illustrate, in most instances, student-counselor work on a topic which falls well within normal limits of pupil concerns during the process of self-identification and maturation.

5) It should provide information we may utilize to better understand viewpoints others hold about the student.

The Coordinating Function

On the basis of appraisal and counseling experiences with the students, a school counselor often must secure and sustain cooperation of other persons to attain counseling goals. Coordination of follow through activities is a routine part of the school counselor's job. On the basis

of personal knowledge of the student, and commitment to all aspects of his development, the counselor acts to bring coherence to the efforts of all concerned with his development. Put briefly, the counselor is to assist all functionaries, including the student, to know the student as well as possible--and then to act as if we know him. I believe most school counseling interviews should lead to change and improvement in the way the school responds to the student. This cannot be expected to happen unless there is systematic follow-through by the counselor as well as by others after counseling.

The Evaluation Function

If the above activities can be properly implemented, the major task of evaluation and establishing oneself as an accountable functionary in the school will already be accomplished. Because of their involvement in the guidance program, both students and faculty will derive some sense of what is going on in guidance, and why it is going on. Process matters a great deal to most people, and if they value processes instigated by the counselor, then they value the counselor. The major accountability problem can be solved, I believe, simply through development of adequate program and process.

Beyond this, however, counselors need to show what they accomplish. They cannot do it in terms of closures, as some others can. Everybody leaves school sooner or later. Every case is eventually closed. What we need to know is how, when the case is closed, is the individual better for having had counseling? We cannot measure success in terms of a return to "normalcy" of our clientele. Most of them have been "normal" all along. So what do we measure? How do we tell whether we have succeeded or not in the large responsibility for school children-in-general? I will leave the reader, I think, with these questions. They require some careful thought about how you help young people learn to thrive in a free society, and to help sustain a society where freedom is a continuing possibility for themselves, for others, and for those who are to come, where "normalcy" is a condition better in the next generation than it has been in this one. If this cannot be taught and learned, then I think school counseling makes little sense. It is what school counseling is all about. It is where, I think, we ought to want to get to.

Reference

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COMBATING DECAY IN DEPARTMENTS OF SCHOOL COUNSELING AND GUIDANCE

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> Decay is hardly the word for what is happening to us. We are witnessing changes so profound and far reaching that the mind can hardly grasp all the implications. That is a story of dynamism, not deterioration (Gardner, 1963, p. xi).

Technological and scientific changes perhaps, but what of the changes taking place in the organizations within which we work? To what extent are our organizations undergoing a continual process of "self-renewal" and avoiding what Gardner (1965) calls "organizational dry rot" (p. 20).

Self-renewal is not a new concept. Man long ago recognized that renewal played a vital part in maintaining the life and vigor of people and their institutions. It is as so today. Whenever decay besets a society, organization, or the individual himself, we might find that things ground to a halt--this result brought about by a lack of vitality, innovation, allegiance, or the desire and motivation to remain alive, healthy, and otherwise prosperous.

Gardner's label of dry rot applies equally to small and large organizations. When it comes to dry rot, size is not of the essence. For our purposes, let us view the counseling and guidance department of a school as an organization. Again, size is not important. As you will see, the suggestions (rules) that follow for preventing dry rot within the organization may be heeded by an organization composed of one or many individuals. In the case of some rules you may find it necessary to view the department of guidance as a subset of the larger school organization, recognizing that some of these offerings cannot realistically be considered until the same rules are implemented by and become an established part of the parent organization itself. In such instances you should opt for helping to bring about such changes in the larger organization of which your department is a part. Then you may be better able to focus on bringing about like changes on your own home front.

The rules that follow are Gardner's--not mine. I use them because of their commonsense value and easily comprehensible nature. Gardner has set forth nine rules for preventing organizational dry rot (the reader is referred to the October, 1965 issue of Harper's Magazine in which Gardner offers complete descriptions of each of the nine rules). Each rule will be interpreted within the framework of a counseling and guidance department. For the sake of brevity my interpretations will be abbreviated--you are not so limited in yours. Use these nine rules in evaluating your own individual departments. How does your department measure up in terms of capability for self-renewal? As with your interpretations, there's really no limit to the amount of effort you may expend to bring about needed changes. Brainstorm--and innovate!

1. The organization must have an effective program for the recruitment and development of talent. (Underlining indicates a direct quoting of Gardner's words.)

Schools will vary in their recruitment methods--some advertising vacancies through elaborate descriptive pamphlets, some sending administrators to college campuses, others merely sending a nondescript vacancy notice to a college placement office. Inasmuch as the interviewing process is a part of the recruitment program, let us think about that aspect for a moment and interpret the first rule along that line.

Although the school administration is primarily responsible for hiring employees, the director of guidance--and even the entire guidance staff--should have an opportunity to talk with prospective employees seeking positions in guidance. The guidance staff may then give input to the administration regarding its impressions of candidates and subsequent recommendations which the administration should consider. Not only may this lead to the hiring of a more suitable individual, but even more so, it may give the guidance staff a feeling that their opinions are being taken into consideration when it comes to the very important aspect of hiring new guidance personnel. After all, the new person will work more with the guidance staff than with the administrators. Such a procedure is very good for morale and could subsequently lead to better working relationships among guidance staff members as well as between the guidance department and administration.

Once the individual is hired it is necessary to provide for the continual development of that person's talents. The guidance department should encourage its staff to keep abreast of the professional literature, join professional groups, attend professional meetings, and enroll in educational programs that will enhance their counseling and guidance skills. This will add to the vitality and effectiveness of the guidance program.

2. The organization must be a hospitable environment for the individual.

It's only reasonable--workers anywhere will function more adequately in a hospitable environment. Look at the environment in which you work. Would you describe it as hospitable? What criteria would you use? Any you want--you name them. Reflect upon those features of the environment that you appreciate and are attractive to you--those that more or less make your work in the institution enjoyable. These features could probably be classified as criteria for judging whether or not a hospitable environment exists. On the other hand, any complaints you have about the environment can probably be labeled as areas that need work to make the environment more hospitable--hence close inspection may uncover worthwhile criteria.

3. The organization must have built-in provisions for self-criticism.

Is self-criticism with respect to guidance department operations and practices encouraged? If not, it should be. Chances are the person at the top of the ladder is going to overlook some aspects of the department that need to be criticized. As such it should be the rule rather than the exception that all staff members feel free to criticize. Criticisms will then cover more ground and be potentially more beneficial. Action taken on criticism can lead to more effective counseling and guidance services.

4. Fluidity of internal structure must exist.

Gardner (1965) observes that "most organizations have a structure that was designed to solve problems that no longer exist" (p. 22). Is this true of your guidance department? Let's face it--from time to time there are discoveries of better ways of doing things which, by their very nature, may necessitate a change in the structure of the organization. For example, a system of male and female counselors seeing only boys and girls respectively might not be appropriate any more. One counselor being responsible only for testing, another only for vocational guidance, and still another only for counseling atypical students--all these individually assigned roles might have to go. No matter how it was before, it may be that a newer, more efficient, and hopefully more effective departmental structure need be implemented to achieve consistency with the times.

5. The organization must have an adequate system of internal communication.

Oh, how little progress is made when people cannot communicate with one another! This rule applies equally to all department members--not only to a few! How many times has your department run afoul because of a lack of communication between guidance director and staff member or

between two staff members? This rule is also somewhat akin to our discussion in number three about provisions for self-criticism. In this latter case self-criticism will take place much more readily if lines of communication are open and free from stifling restrictions. Perhaps one means of evaluating the adequacy of internal communication is to study how smoothly department activities are carried out. If there are snags, it may be because a left hand didn't know what a right was doing; that an individual(s) didn't even know what he/she was supposed to be doing; or that too little commitment was generated for adequate completion of the task at hand. All possibilities are problems of faulty internal communications. All can lead to organizational dry rot.

6. The organization must have some means of combating the process by which men become prisoners of their procedures.

This rule differs from number four in that it deals with procedures and not organization structure, although the two have the potential for interacting to the detriment of the department. Let it suffice here to simply ask you to study the way things are handled in the guidance department--from assorted paperwork to students' getting in to see a counselor. Are the procedures as efficient as they could be? Do they represent outmoded ways of doing things? Watch out for the "but we've always done it this way" rationale. Open communication, the encouragement of creative thinking, and receptivity to the trying out of new ways of going about things all serve to combat the procedural ruts department members may find themselves in.

7. Some means of combating the vested interests that grow up in every human institution should exist.

I would say that that the concept of vested interests applies both to the individual staff member and the department as a whole. The term vested interests is not a pleasant sounding one to begin with, let alone what such interests can lead to. From time to time one or more individuals will develop vested interests that are obviously not consistent with the department's policies and may serve to undermine the department's efforts toward achieving certain goals. The example of a counselor seeing his or her students and students' parents outside of the school setting in private practice (and charging a fee for such services, no less) is perhaps not only unethical but may also be working against the services the school is expected to provide.

The department as a whole may develop its own vested interest--that of believing that (and subsequently behaving as though) it is, in essence, the only department in the institution. Now we all know where that attitude will get us; but, nevertheless, such is probably the case for some guidance departments in some schools. Gardner's solution for combating such interests is a very valuable one; he advocates "selling the

idea that in the long run everyone's overriding vested interest is in the continuing vitality of the organization itself" (1965, p. 22). You might have to work hard in selling the idea, but it does seem a reasonable way of handling the situation.

8. The organization is interested in what it is going to become and not what it has been.

Looking ahead is not always easy, but alas it is a necessity; or it is if one wishes to be around and prepared when tomorrow becomes today. McLuhan (1967) put it aptly when he observed that

> When faced with a totally new situation, we tend always to attach ourselves to the objects, to the flavor of the most recent past. We look at the present through a rear-view mirror. We march backwards into the future (pp. 74-75).

If guidance departments can look ahead and maintain interest in that direction, the chances for "dry rot" setting in will be reduced considerably. School enrollment projections should be studied, creative planning of department activities for the coming years undertaken, and a "nowhere to move but ahead" attitude encouraged. If accomplished, each of these efforts would suggest that the staff was more interested in its future being than in maintaining the status quo.

9. An organization runs on motivation, on conviction, on morale--such dimensions must be inherent in the organization's members.

The essence of this rule, as opposed to the other eight, is probably the most difficult of all to bring about in the department's members. One simply does not "wish it and it will be so." The instilling of motivation, conviction, and morale in individuals takes time, patience, and the belief that it can and needs to be done. Gardner has, in the preceeding eight rules, offered us some, although not all, of the tools needed for effecting the growth of such dimensions in staff members and for stimulating and bringing about self-renewal in organizations.

I would encourage you to develop additional rules of your own that you see as necessary either because they have general application across organizations (and hence would be good ones to add to Gardner's list) or because they are specific to your department and would help effect self-renewal.

Review Gardner's guidelines now and think about how, within your department, they might promote self-renewal--a continual process that any organization must go through and without which it cannot function successfully.

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FAMILY COMMUNICATIONS SYSTEMS
A DEVELOPMENTAL GUIDANCE
ACTIVITY FOR PARENTS

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Introduction

Counseling and Guidance as a profession is in desperate need for action programs to assist in the process of reconceptualizing the outcomes resulting from its services. Family Communication Systems is such a program. Its need is obvious, its outcomes are multi-dimensional, and its community involvement and support are unusually positive.

Background

Before proceeding with specifics of this particular program, I would like to present some background thoughts and comments from a practitioner for 14 years, a former ASCA president (from Role and Function Study Days) and most recently a pupil personnel services administrator.

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Much has been written in the past several years about what's wrong with counseling and guidance. Some theorists have suggested programs of every possibly type to significantly change the focus of guidance, but all too frequently their ideas or suggestions come across as blaming or accusing counselors themselves, their apathy, their low risk-taking behavior, their support of the status quo, and on ad infinitum (Carlson in the March 1973 edition of "Focus on Guidance" has a good review of these criticisms). While the theorists are attempting to delineate or propose new ideas, many counselors appear to be either blinded by the changes being suggested, or, as Hays (1972 ASCA Journal) suggested, they do not understand the real situation:

> School counselors seem to be eternal optimists about the improvement of their situation. 'All we need is to reduce the counselor-student ratio and we can do our job.' 'Give us an adequate share of the finances, and we can provide programs to solve the problems of counselees.' 'Take away the 'administrivia' and we can counsel.' Unfortunately, it just isn't so! (p. 93)

It certainly seems to me that the issue or problem is not the intent of most counselors across the country. Most have the best of intentions to be of assistance to young people, but something seems to prevent them from gaining new prospectives to the complex problems the counseling and guidance profession faces. The issue appears to me to be process oriented, not intent.

Dr. Robert Theobold, noted author and Futurist, uses an idea that has helped me conceptualize how I might begin to deal with change and new ideas. He suggests that each one of us creates our sense of reality by developing a collection of myths, which at a given point in time, represent our best understanding of our own reality. He further suggests that if, in fact, we are aware that our beliefs are really a collection of myths, then we can easily understand that we can drop some myths and add others to allow for a change or new understandings.

It is my hope that other counselors might use this understanding to realize that set of beliefs which was given then in their counselor preparation program was a collection of myths--perhaps the "best" set available at that point in time, but certainly subject to change in most C.E. programs. (Yes, I can show you some graduate programs that have the same collection of myths they held in the late 1950's and they are trying to still hold on!)

From my perspective in our fast moving, contemporary, changing world, not only will counselors need to understand their current myths and frequently readjust them, but they should also be encouraged to assist those whom they serve in seeing that person(s) myths and exploring alternatives to them.

In the field of Counseling and Guidance, one of the major myths that is in need of intensive examination relates to whether we should continue with the therapeutic/medical model? For me, it is becoming increasingly evident that our society will not solve its serious mental health problems by waiting until after people have developed psychological disorders to treat them. This model is based on the myth that has been with counseling and guidance since its early post-war II thrust.

It is my strong opinion (a part of my present set of myths which I may choose to revise sometime in the future) that school counselors' priorities should be in the area of development, growth enhancing activities rather than therapeutic-problem centered areas.

One wonders why counseling and guidance has not been more responsive to the need for change and growth. My sense of this lack of adjustment is related both to the training counselors have received (or lack of it) and their personal life styles. Their style is frequently a kind,

concerned pattern, but not especially risk taking or action oriented. The second (personal life style) issue is much more a personal decision while the first very much relates to the kind of training (or retraining) that a counselor avails themselves to and this training is available at a time and place that makes attendance for counselors possible. Hopefully, other counselor preparation institutions will assume a more active role similar to this Institute to prove new skills for counselors.

It is my perspective that many other learning or training opportunities are available outside of the college or university setting and can have a significant impact on the skills, tools or action programs a counselor (a group of counselors) may adopt.

Examples of these possible learning activities to which I refer might include:

- Values Clarification
- The Human Development Program
- Peer Counseling
- Self-Enhancing Education
- Family Communication Systems
- Achievement Motivation Program

(Note: The May issues of both the APGA & ASCA Journals are devoted to these areas of psychological education.)

None of these programs have anything to do with counseling per se. They do have a significant impact on the total living environment of people. Counselors and related pupil personnel specialists are beginning to option into these and other similar training offerings as a means to compensate for their lack of preparation and a way to obtain needed skills in dealing with pressing social problems. Among these problem areas are:

a. Ineffective child rearing practices with the resulting impact on a child's self-concept.

b. Chemical dependency ranging from alcoholic parents down to 5th and 6th graders stoned in school.

c. Family breakdown and marital disharmony.

d. Isolation and loneliness in all age groups.

e. Value conflicts within social institutions like churches, agencies and schools that seem to drastically reduce their effectiveness.

Having participated in many of the "external" training programs and having intensively shared in developing one of these action-oriented programs, Family Communication Systems, I'd like to examine its background a little more in depth to assist you in more closely understanding (and better experiencing) a program emphasizing relationship systems and ways to actively intervene or change them. These ideas for family communications training are presented with the assumption that it is both easier and more effective to offer developmental assistance to parents than to attempt to provide help after crises have arisen with their children.

As a professional, it is my opinion that we should be concerned with more than classroom or social related developmental guidance activities:

*"Although teachers and classrooms have a significant effect on the child, parents provide the initial and most pervasive impact on the child's feelings of self-worth. This point is made by Virginia Satir, a leading family therapist, in her recent book, People Making (1972):

"An infant coming into the world has no past, no experience in handling himself, no scale on which to judge his own worth. He must rely on the experience he has with the people around him and the messages they give him about his worth as a person. For the first five or six years, the child's self-esteem is formed by the family almost exclusively. After he starts school, other influences come into play, but the family remains important all through his adolescence. Outside forces tend to reinforce the feelings of worth or worthlessness that he has learned at home. The high self-esteem child can weather many failures in school or among peers. The low self-esteem child can experience many successes yet feel a gnawing doubt about his own value (p. 24).

"A Further Examination of the Need"

"Traditionally, little or no assistance in child rearing practices has been provided parents. Parent "training" is generally made up of the parent's experience in his own family, an abundance of contradictory suggestions in articles or advice columns, and

*The majority of the material on this and the following five pages is from an article by Benson, et al., appearing in Elementary School Guidance and Counseling, March 1973, pp. 222-226.

perhaps an occasional course in psychology. Given this situation, and with wide agreement that home factors are responsible for a sizeable percentage of education failures, it is surprising that so little attention is being given to the resolution of this problem. Richard Blum, from the Stanford Institute for Policy Analysis, in his recent book Horatio Alger's Children (1972), which studies the causes of adolescent drug use, states:

"When illicit drug use exceeds its normal experimental or social norms, and becomes a devious means for communicating rebellion or hostility or for emotional escape, then a pathological situation probably exists within the family (p. 13).

"In their book, The Silent Majority, Westley and Epstein (1969), tie the mental health of children to the communication skills of their parents. Numerous other examples of studies and expert opinion clearly focus on the fact that parents need help in their parenting skills.

"It should be noted that this growing need is not one created by lack of good intent on the part of parents. Our experience has convinced us that almost all parents wish to do a competent job. Rather, the need is created by a lack of awareness of communicative processes and their importance or by a lack of skill to effectively communicate in a manner having a positive impact on their children. In lieu of these awarenesses and skills, parents frequently fall back on patterns used in their own families, regardless of the effectiveness of those patterns. They become burdened with myths regarding what should happen in families and with the idea that their family has more difficulty than most. The net result is a situation in which parents feel guilty and frustrated in their delicate and demanding communication role with their families.

"Background"

"In response to the call for help from frustrated parents, and in recognition of the need for a developmental program to assist parents' communication with their children, an exemplary program began to arise in one district elementary counseling program. Over a four-year period, two of the authors formulated a series of structured experimental learning activities directed toward assisting parents in their desire to improve their child rearing competencies. This communication program for parents emphasizes the following components.

"Facilitative listening. Being sensitive to both the content and the feeling of what a child or a spouse has to say. The objective is to help the child "own" his problem by helping him clarify his thoughts and feelings as he works toward a solution.

Goal setting. A bridge between awareness and application of new ideas and skills. The objective is to increase the actual application of what has been learned by increasing the specificity of the situation in which it will be initially attempted. To support this activity the Parent Handbook includes a section for written goal statements after each of the seven sessions. This approach is used because it appears to hold more potential for change than parents merely verbalizing their good intentions to behave differently with their children.

"Identification of parenting styles. Recognition of one's current mode of parenting and its effect on the child. This is seen as a precondition for the improvement of parenting.

"Sending negative feelings. Being able to express negative feelings in a way in which the child will not feel totally rejected. Parents are guided toward legitimate expression of their negative feelings, tying these feelings to a specific behavior of the child, and moving with the child toward a behavior which might satisfactorily take the place of the undesirable behavior.

"Sending positive feelings. Appropriate reinforcement of behavior which parents wish their children to maintain or increase. The objective is to create an atmosphere where all family members can realistically accept the praise and affection of others.

"Systems analysis skills. Ways of identifying repetitive behavior patterns in the family which leave given individuals feeling as though they count or don't count in relationship to other family members. The objective is to enable parents to change systems they feel are having a negative effect on their children or their marital relationship.

"Creative problem solving. Effective use of the previous skills within a framework which allows input from all family members and leads to effective decision making in matters concerning the entire family.

"Family Rules. An awareness of hidden rules which are behind unsatisfactory behavior within the family. The objective is to first identify the rules which have negative effects and then develop strategies for changing these to more effective, positive rule structures.

"Experiential learning activities based upon the above have been structured into a seven-evening program. In addition, a Parent Handbook has been developed which follows the content presented in each unit and provides the parents with reinforcing activities to help them integrate the concepts they have experienced in the session.

"During the sessions there is much use of role playing in structured situations to provide each participant with both personal awareness

and new alternatives to use within his own family. These separate sessions are held in the following order, with the following emphases:

"Unit A: An Introduction to Family Communication. This session includes a general overview of what the course is intended to cover; the hopes and expectations of the parents participating; personal awareness of basic feelings; and experiential activities designed to create an awareness of behavior and communication patterns.

"Unit B: Parenting Style and Facilitative Listening. Parents are acquainted with common styles of parenting and with the use of facilitative listening in appropriate situations with the family.

"Unit C: DESI (Describe, Express, Suggest, Involve) Messages. Experiences in sending negative messages which include a description of the positive behavior; expression of how the parents feel about this behavior; and encouragement to continue such behavior.

"Unit D: Family Systems Analysis and Strategies for Changing. In this crucial unit, the materials focus on the family as a system which is relatively stable, but capable of making desired changes. Parents are acquainted with four communication systems which block effective communications, as well as an open system which facilitates open and honest communication. The unique skill of changing the system by commenting on the communication process is also included.

"Unit E: This unit deals with approaches to creative problem solving. Parents are guided in a step-by-step procedure for solving problems effectively. Application of the skills learned in previous units is emphasized in each step of the problem solving process. The creation of role playing activities to solve hypothetical situations highlights this unit.

"Unit F: Family Night. Parents bring their children to experience some of the communications activities which the parents have selected as most relevant or meaningful to them. Parents and children are encouraged to share their feelings about the activities and their possible application to their own family. A series of short activities has been developed which emphasizes the skills previously taught, so that the parents and their children can practice them together.

"Unit G: Family Rules and Their Application. This unit exposes parents to the very important matter of family rules. They learn to identify and comment on implicit or hidden rules within their families. They are then guided into applying previously learned skills in order to make these hidden rules explicit and thus negotiable within their own families. As the final unit, this material helps to pull together the other ideas and skills of the course, and point the "graduate" parents in a positive direction.

"Issues for the practioner to consider"

1. Be aware that a program like this will require some training experience and a good deal of time to create satisfactory materials.

2. Activities of this nature will require risk-taking behavior on your part, and on the part of the parents involved.

3. One of the most effective approaches may well be to work as a team with another counselor, a trained parent, or staff member.

4. Needs assessment strategies provide a good means of determining parents' needs and interests, thus assuring involvement and effort.

5. Group leaders must be prepared to focus on creative learning activities which allow parental insight. The emphasis must be on seeing alternatives rather than on giving advice. A program like this cannot be effective in a question-answer type of group behavior.

6. Initiate groups with people who can help make it a successful experience, rather than with people who tend to be disruptive, or hard-nosed about such ventures.

7. Parents will respond in very supportive ways to the whole school enterprise after experiencing a training program like this. In their eyes, this breaks the pattern of coming to school only for PTA or crisis interventions.

"This program has been used not only by counselors in schools but also by leaders in drug abuse centers, social service agencies, and churches. It has been used effectively both in developmental programs and programs addressed to special needs such as the parenting of children with special learning and behavior problems, hearing impairment, and retardation."

An experimental program in operation in the Hopkins school district during this year and the 1973-74 school year is utilizing a new team approach to offering Family Communications Systems training. Teams were developed by selecting five people from each of the following groups: Parents, teachers (elementary), junior high school students and senior high school students; five males, five females in each of the student and adult groups were chosen. (Further, in the student group, five were from the "counter-culture", five from the "straights".) Two counselors (one of the co-authors of these materials), conducted a 10-week training program for these trainees. Following this, these trainee groups conducted parent groups for interested parents and the

counselor remained available as a consultant or resource in case of difficulty. Each trainee group will conduct 3 parent groups as a part of the research design (a Ph.D. dissertation at the University of Minnesota).

"A direction for the future"

"Someday, hopefully in the not too distant future, various social organizations will be able to provide parents with activities that will maximize their ability to create positive self-esteem in their children. The goal is to provide such developmental assistance early in the parenting experience, possibly even previous to the birth of children. At the same time we will provide teachers with more humane alternatives as far as their personal behavior in the classroom, and provide more effective developmental activities designed to encourage personal dignity in every individual, regardless of his situation."

Additional information can be obtained by writing the author or Human Synergistics, Inc., 2512 West Lake of the Isles Blvd., Minneapolis, Minnesota, to obtain further information about the training materials for "Family Communication Systems."

SECTION II

ACCOUNTABILITY

ACCOUNTABILITY IN GUIDANCE AND PUPIL PERSONNEL SERVICES

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Accountability, the great code word of education for the 70's and probably beyond, is catching up with the student services arm of our schools and colleges. Programs designed to meet the demands of accountability in our public schools began by focusing on such critical and reasonably measurable aspects of learning as reading, mathematics, and other basic learning skills. Counseling, guidance, and other non-academic, student oriented services were not often mentioned in the early days of accountability discussions. These were the "intangible" services, the effects of which could not be readily measured but the need for which was considered to be self-evident. Those days are now gone.

In retrospect, it would appear that two major factors account for the growing demand for accountability from these helping services. For schools and other public institutions the sheer burden of rising costs and dwindling sources of revenue have forced boards of education to take a close look at every aspect of the educational system and ask hard questions about the results they are getting. That is the first factor.

The second is related to the first development and is simply the fact that for years serious efforts to evaluate the effectiveness of counseling, guidance, and pupil services have been more honored in the breach than in the performance. We have been taken in by our own assumptions of worthwhileness and have trusted that those who foot the tax bills and make the decisions would see as we do the value and importance of the helping services that we render to youth. Unfortunately, what we do has always been easier to see than what we accomplish, and when efforts have been made to collect even the most subjective data, such as client satisfaction with services, the results have not been very encouraging.

Accountability Defined

"Accountability thinking" shifts the historical emphasis in education from concern for inputs (what we do) to concern for outputs (the results of what we do). Put another way, accountability focuses

attention on such questions as: Are pupils learning to read? Are they able to enter jobs? Are they learning the skills needed to become successful adults? These questions are quite different from the typical concerns of school systems in the past that might include such questions as: Do we have enough teachers? Do we have good books, equipment, physical facilities? Are we using the best methods of teaching and the latest hardware and software?

As soon as thinking shifts from concern for input to concern for output, we enter a new frame of reference that partakes of concepts and terminology that have been foreign to education. Accountability is "production oriented." Operating an enterprise in a way that makes it accountable requires an "engineering approach" and "management skills." In short, accountability requires the application of managerial skills from the business world and technological skills from the industrial world to the operation of what is essentially a humanistic enterprise, education. No wonder accountability makes us nervous for we are supposed to be the most humanistic part of the educational enterprise.

Leon Lessinger (1970), a former Associate Commissioner of Education, refers to accountability as an engineering approach to education. While the focus, as noted above, is on output, the actual operation of an accountability system does not dwell on one part of the operation at the expense of another part. A system is seen in its totality and careful attention is paid to the relationship between input and output. In engineering you begin by defining first what it is you want to produce. Then you design means to reach your production requirement and those means are only considered adequate if the product meets your predefined specifications. It is precisely this process that Lessinger and others are arguing for in education.

To become accountable, then, we must <u>first</u> define what it is that we want youngsters to learn from their schooling, then we must devise the strategies and provide the equipment and materials that are most likely to help them attain those learning outcomes, then we measure to see if they have attained the outcomes, and finally we feedback into our system the information from those outcome measurements so that we can correct or improve what we are doing in order to get better results. At any time in this system we can also change our objectives or we can change the priorities assigned to objectives, emphasizing some more than others.

In the realm of guidance and pupil personnel services the kinds of learning outcomes we are concerned with happen to fall in the realm of personal and social development. This includes a broad range of human behaviors, and personality, temperament, and attitudinal factors, that are related to successful performance in many areas of education, as well as outcomes that go well beyond the boundaries of formal schooling.

The successful attainment of many learning outcomes, for example, are related to attitudes toward self, motivation, goal orientation, and study skills. The same factors can apply to the successful attainment of outcomes related to job or career placement, marrying and raising a family, and meeting responsibilities of citizenship. Here learnings about the self, decision making skills, sources of useful information, and many other such factors also enter into successful or lack of success.

Assistance to students in the development of these personal skills, coping behaviors, and self understandings constitute the major inputs of guidance and counseling services. What is now being required of us, if we are to become accountable, is that we begin to define more precisely just what outcomes of learning and personal and social development we are able to assist students in attaining. Then we must evaluate our effectiveness in helping students attain those objectives. There are some real questions as to what we can legitimately expect from the professional skills and knowledge we have to offer, and the extent to which such reasonable expectations are worth the cost involved in reaching them.

While this is threatening, it is also a healthy development. We are likely to come out of this "era of accountability" with a much better idea of what we can actually do best, and with much better means for insuring that we are making a worthwhile contribution to education and to the lives of young people in their development toward adulthood. Humes (1972) put the challenge this way:

> As the debate rages over whether accountability in education is a boon or a bane, the empirical evidence suggests that accountability may well save the day for guidance. At a time when every part of the educational system is under attack and personnel are being capriciously eliminated, the only programs that can survive are those that can be justified on the basis of measurable criteria. Although the issue of worthwhileness is being forced on counselors in a threatening way, it comes at a propitious time. The past several years have seen a gradual erosion of confidence in what guidance can produce in many school situations. This erosive condition contains the seeds of the eventual decline and fall of guidance, so it is imperative that counselors meet the challenge of accountability.

Becoming Accountable

Three major conditions appear to be necessary for the implementation of an accountability system in any enterprise (a total school system, the pupil personnel services, the high school guidance unit, the single classroom).

First, you must have a positive attitude toward the concept of accountability. You must accept the requirements that go with accountability as being reasonable and meaningful for education. In short, you must believe that it is important to be accountable for your results and willing to make the effort that is required. Without this commitment nothing much will happen. True, some decision maker of greater authority than you may insist that you become accountable, but until you make the commitment yourself you are not likely to make more than a minimum effort.

Second, you need some technical and procedural knowledge by which to implement an accountability system. Because accountability requires an organized, systematic, managerial approach to the delivery of services, you need some technical expertise that goes beyond your typical counseling and guidance preparation.

Third, you need support from your enterprise in the form of time and resources to carry out the development of the system. It is not reasonable to expect that the personnel of any enterprise can go on doing what they are presently doing and still implement an accountability system. The requirements for the development and maintenance of an accountability system must be built into the workload of any professional staff.

Meeting the first of these requirements is clearly a personal matter. The fact that you are now reading this paper suggests that you have both commitment and interest and are probably seeking help on the second of the conditions. If so, this paper may help you because it has been designed to provide you with a minimum of technical knowledge to enable you to get started.

Finally, it will be up to you to develop the leverage to get the support from your school, college, or agency to free enough of your time and/or time of colleagues to develop the system. To the extent that you can get other resources for the purchase of materials, consulting help, or whatever, you will have a greater chance of successful implementation. In this regard, it is important to recognize from the outset that accountability, almost by definition, is not a "one shot deal." You do not "become accountable" and then quit. Accountability is an ongoing process that never ends. What is typically required at this early stage of development, however, is the alteration of many aspects

of your current mode of operation in order to put you on an accountability system. Thus, a major input of development time is usually required for an initial period and then a lesser allocation of time for the maintenance of the system once it has begun.

Our best estimates of what this might require are nothing more than "ballpark" ideas. Everything depends on what you want to accomplish and how large a system you are dealing with. Nevertheless, for planning purposes, you ought to conceive of a five year time line from development to implementation. The first year is for planning the system, including writing goals and objectives. The second year is to develop and test your strategies. The third year might be devoted to evaluating the results of your testing and making necessary changes and improvements. The last two years are to move into implementation and establish the system as your basic operating procedure. By the time the procedures are established, budgeting for the system should also be established on a planning/programming basis in conjunction with other parts of the enterprise. How much actual staff time and resources will be required to meet this timeline in your situation will depend on your assessment of where you are at when you begin and how far you want to go with the system we shall describe. In the final analysis, you will need to tailor your effort to the resources that are available. Fortunately, the system is flexible and shortcuts can be devised. Development time can also be extended. What is important is to get started and to be systematic about what you do.

A Systems Model for Accountability

The systems approach or systems analysis has emerged from the development of General System Theory over the past 30 or 40 years. (See, for example, von Bertalanffy, 1968 or Churchman, 1968). Its application to business, industry and government has become widespread. Now it has received increasing use in education, particularly in educational technology and in educational planning and budgeting. The concept of a systems approach is really quite simple.

First of all, a systems approach is a process of problem solving. The approach assumes that all activities, organizations, or enterprises are dynamic systems interacting with other larger and smaller systems in an ever widening net of relationships. The description or analysis of any given system is made by studying the relationship of the parts (e.g., the operating steps in a human system) to each other and to the total system. A systems approach to problem solving begins with a definition of the goal or goals of the system and then relates the inputs of the system to the desired outputs.

Let us illustrate this abstract definition by applying it to the guidance program of Kennedy High School. First of all, the guidance program is defined as a system. This system, in turn, relates to other systems such as the curriculum and instruction system, the administrative system, the physical facilities system, the community system, and so on.

The guidance system consists of a set of complex operations that are performed by a number of people interacting with both people and things. A number of sub-systems can be identified within this particular guidance system. Some of these might be the program planning system, the college advising system, the personal counseling system, the occupational information system, etc. Each of these sub-systems has its own set of operations. An analysis of any of these sub-systems would result in a step by step description of what is done in the process of implementing the system.

Now let us assume there are some problems within this Kennedy High School Guidance System that are of concern to the decision makers in the system (e.g., the counselors, the director of guidance, the principal, etc.). Maybe one of the major problems has to do with the inordinate amount of time that goes into the planning of programs for the students. What would a systems approach to the solution of that problem look like?

A systems approach would basically consist of the following elements: (1) A statement of the purpose of program planning, what it is intended to accomplish and what a desirable outcome for the students would be as a result of this planning. (2) An analysis of the operations that are currently being performed by various personnel to carry out program planning. (3) An evaluation of the extent to which the desired results of planning are being achieved. (4) The design of a more efficient system to accomplish the desired ends, possibly utilizing most of the existing elements but introducing a few new ones and/or reallocating responsibility for carrying out certain operations. (5) Calculating the cost of operating the system by one or more methods and relating the cost to the desired results. (6) Trying out one or more alternative operations, evaluating the results, and using that evaluative information to decide what system to implement.

The model that we shall now describe is a more detailed breakdown of the illustrative operations described in the paragraph above. Space limitations preclude more than summary explanations of the various steps in the system, but a full description of the system is contained in the project report for which the model was developed.[1]

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[1]Cook, David R. A Systems Approach to the Development of Pupil Personnel Services, Project SAGE Report, Bedford School System, Bedford, Massachusetts, 1973.

Attached to the end of this paper is a flowchart of the entire systems model. This is a graphic picture of the model showing each of the major operations or sub-systems in the total system and how they relate to one another. The relationships are shown by the signal paths (lines with arrowheads) which essentially indicate the direction in which information is carried from one sub-system to another.

What follows will be a step by step summary description of each of the 11 operations shown on the flowchart. We will try to provide enough information so that you can understand the operation, although the details of "how to do it" will require a reading of the full report. (For additional details on the first four sub-systems see Cook, 1972).

CONDUCT NEEDS ASSESSMENT 1.0. A needs assessment is a procedure whereby you establish the client demand for services. In other words, what do clients want from pupil personnel services? Your clients can include not only students but parents, teachers, and administrators as well. Each set of clients can require a separate needs assessment.

Needs assessment data, like most of the data collected in the process of implementing this model, is conceived of as data for decision making. That is to say, the major purpose for collecting information is to provide a better basis for decision makers to make decisions. Everyone in a system is a decision maker at some point. However, particularly in bureaucratic organizations, some decision makers take priority in their decision making power over other decision makers. Part of your task in implementing a systems approach is to identify the most important decision makers for your enterprise and see that they get the information they need to make better decisions. If you want support for the development of certain services you are more likely to get it if you have data that demonstrates there is a demand for that service. In many cases we are supplying services for which there is no real demand from the clients being serviced.

With regard to how you collect needs assessment data, the procedures can be as simple or as complex, as limited or as extensive as you have the time and resources for. But the essence of the procedure is to ask your clients what they want. One suggested format for asking this is the following:

Present the client with a general description of the "domain of concern," in this case let us say that is the guidance department. Then ask the client to imagine how that department would look in an ideal state in which it was providing him with all the services that he wanted or needed from it. Later, a breakdown of this client's description into a series of unitary statements will provide a catalog of demands. Many such descriptions will produce a single comprehensive list which can later be shown to the clients for verification and for setting priorities

as to which needs are most important and should be provided first while resources are available.

STATE GOALS 2.0. Goals are statements of intention to accomplish something. They do not clearly define what is to be accomplished but they supply a direction or intentionality that is clear. One obvious source for such statements of intention are the needs that were previously assessed. A statement of an intent to meet a need is a goal statement. Since goal statements represent values intended to be accomplished, the question of who states goals is important. In our approach we feel it is important that any final set of goal statements be those of the most important decision makers.

This does not mean that the most important decision makers are the only ones to write goals or that their goals are the only goals written. It means that whatever individual or groups develop goal statements, if there is to be any hope of implementing them, they must be agreed to by key decision makers. Clearly, goals for pupil personnel services ought to be written by members of the pupil services staff. But in writing such goals, it would be wise to ask the key decision makers what their goals for PPS are so they can be included (or persuaded to change their mind).

PRIORTIZE GOALS 3.0. We operate on the assumption that all goals will be worthy of attainment but there are limited resources and all goals cannot be equally well attained and some not attained at all. Therefore, it behooves any planner to make choices, among several attractive goals, of those that are sufficiently important to justify a major commitment of resources. Again, our approach is to insure that the priorities are finally those of the most important decision makers.

There are some systematic ways to establish priorities, two of which we shall describe briefly. One is simply to rank order the goals from highest to lowest. When many such rankings are obtained, the ranks can be averaged to establish a collective priority. This will be data for the decision maker to consider when he sets his priorities.

A second procedure is to develop a rating scale of four or five points from Highly Important to Least Important and assign a rating to each goal statement. Since this is an absolute rather than a relative system, in theory each goal could be rated highly important. This system works best if you define in some way how you want "highly important" to be judged. Also a number of such ratings can be averaged and the four or five highest rated goals can arbitrarily be selected as the most important. Again, the data will be given to the decision maker as a basis for establishing his priorities.

Because of the complexity of working through the various remaining steps in the system, setting priorities is extremely important. To do so means you can concentrate your efforts on only those most important outcomes. Then as you have time you can return to less important outcomes and work on them.

OPERATIONALIZE GOALS 4.0. Goal statements are always "fuzzy" because they are directed at broad intents. In order for us to know exactly what it is we are aiming at those intents must be operationalized. This means we must break down the goals into statements that describe rather specific observable behaviors or states. Only then can we have some hope of measuring the extent to which we are meeting objectives.

Take the goal of helping students attain a feeling of self-worth. Until we can describe how a student might behave who has this feeling we will not know whether we have helped the student or not. Operationalizing a goal is the process of analyzing the behavioral components that make up the intent, such as "feeling of self-worth," and then casting those behavioral components in the form of statements that describe measureable outcomes.

This is probably one of the most crucial and difficult steps in the accountability model. Fortunately, there are some excellent resources that will teach you how to do this and there are many available examples of already operationalized goals from which you can draw for your particular purposes.

PERFORM FUNCTIONAL/TASK ANALYSIS 5.0. Up to this point the system has concentrated on the process of defining the ends toward which the services are to be directed. Beginning with this operation we begin an examination of the means. This first step is an analysis of current operations. What is presently going on within the system you are analyzing?

This operation involves cataloging all the activities that are currently being carried on by the pupil personnel services staff and making a determination of the amounts and/or the proportion of time and other resources that are going into each of those activities or clusters of activities. Again, the key to an effective analysis is utilizing systematic methods for carrying it out. The SAGE report describes and illustrates some methods for doing this. One of the simplest ways is to have each person in the pupil personnel services system write down a list of the functions and the tasks he performs and the proportion of his total working time during the year that he gives to each function. This information, when combined with that from personnel assigned similar functions can give a rather good picture of what is being done and where the time is being spent.

RELATE FUNCTIONS TO GOALS 6.0. This step is essentially a diagnostic one as it will help to reveal where there are problems in the system. The process is one in which you relate the functions performed to the goals that are to be attained. When done in a systematic fashion this procedure can reveal the following: (1) Goals for which there are no related functions; (2) Functions for which there are no related goals; (3) Time consuming functions that are related to low priority or insignificant goals; (4) High priority goals for which a very low proportion of time is being spent on relevant functions. And of course the analysis will also indicate where the "fit" is good.

Information from this process is of great importance to decision makers and may provide the pupil personnel services with its best leverage for change. Once goals and priorities have been agreed to by decision makers, an analysis that indicates that large amounts of time are being devoted to functions that contribute little or nothing to the attainment of important goals requires some direct action. Either the decision maker must support a change of function or he must reassign goal priorities.

PERFORM METHODS/MEANS ANALYSIS 7.0. Beginning with this operation, the development and planning of new strategies or the revision of current strategies begins. A systematic approach requires that you analyze the possible strategies you might use to attain your objectives. For each performance objective that you have developed you identify some strategies that would be likely to help you attain that objective. Of course, this analysis will involve your study of current strategies since many of them will continue to be utilized. However, each current strategy must be linked to the attainment of one or more objectives. Here again, by concentrating on a few of the highest priority objectives the development of methods to attain those objectives will be focused where the need is greatest.

This is also an operation where a search of already developed strategies becomes important. It is wasted energy to develop strategies that have already been worked out and made available through the professional literature or commercial enterprises. For example, if improved decision making skills is one of your program objectives you will be able to find some already developed programs to help you attain that objective.

SELECT PROGRAM STRATEGIES 8.0. The preceding operation should have produced a set of options from which you can now choose in your effort to meet your goals and objectives. If the methods/means analysis was done thoroughly the range of options should be fairly wide and the information on cost, training required, time needed to implement, and so on will be available. The selection process is a fairly complicated one in which the advantages and disadvantages of a particular strategy must be weighed as well as the costs involved in relation to the importance of the objectives to be attained. Evidence

that these factors were considered should accompany recommendations to the decision makers as to which strategies should be selected for testing.

TEST NEW STRATEGIES 9.0. In a systems approach you never leap fully into implementation without first testing a strategy. Testing, of course, means evaluating effectiveness. Does the strategy give some promise of helping you to attain your objectives? Trying out one or more strategies on a limited basis can involve evaluating those strategies from a number of perspectives. Client satisfaction, ease of implementation, cost in time, effort, and money, and effectiveness in attaining measurable objectives are some of the possible types of evaluation that can be made at this stage.

Results of testing are fed back into the program selection sub-system as you can see from the feedback (F) signal path on the flowchart. Since the next step is implementation, decisions at that stage will rely on information developed through testing. Strategies can also be improved or "debugged" through the testing process so that when implemented they will be improved over the initial tryout.

IMPLEMENT STRATEGIES 10.0. Implementing a program strategy or strategies on a wide scale can, of course, be a complex operation. But as a part of this basic systems model we do not need to dwell on the self-evident meaning of the operation. At the point of implementation there is a tacit long range commitment to make the strategy an on-going part of the program, subject always to revision or phasing out when it no longer serves a needed purpose. The latter is precisely the intent of an accountability system, to see that what we do gets results and that we stop doing or change what is not getting results.

EVALUATE PRODUCT 11.0. Product evaluation, the final step in this system model, is based on the performance objectives that were established from sub-system 4.0. These objectives have defined the outcomes expected at the end of the "treatment process." If your objective is to have the pupils demonstrate the ability to make tentative career choices at the end of a career development program then your evaluation is based on a measurement of the extent to which those choices were made by the pupils exposed to the program.

Actual evaluative methods probably pose one of the most difficult challenges for anyone engaged in accountability. Most of the outcomes we want to measure in guidance and counseling are difficult to evaluate. The key to successful evaluation really lies in the effort put into the development of the performance objectives since those objectives will have specified the criteria that would be used to judge results.

Most evaluative criteria for performance objectives in pupil personnel will consist of measures that are indirect reflections of the attainment

of a particular goal. For example, a reduction in the number of program shifts or changes made by students might be a valid indicator of improved decision making and educational planning resulting from a program aimed directly at this objective. Yet the data itself, number of program changes, is readily obtainable through a count of recorded changes and the fact of it being a reduction or not is established over time as one counting period is compared with another during the time of treatment. When a variety of such measures are taken, all indicating the same trend, you can be reasonably confident that you have evaluated a real outcome.

As we have stressed throughout the system, data is collected for decision makers and evaluative data in this case is intended primarily to aid in decision making. Are programs to be dropped or supported, changed or remain the same, expanded or contracted? These are some of the kinds of decisions that can be better made with product evaluation data.

You will see that the flowchart provides for this information to be fed back into the beginning of the system, thus "closing the loop" and indicating that the system is dynamic or self-correcting. Evaluation should result in changes throughout the system, minor or major, with changes in one part of the system leading to changes in other parts with the same process being constantly recycled. This is what makes a system accountable.

Guba and Stufflemean (1968) have proposed what they call a CIPP Evaluation Model and a few comments on this model may be helpful. The letters in the model stand for Context, Input, Process and Product. Each is an aspect of the evaluative process. The discussion above has focused on Product evaluation. However, the total systems model we have just described is itself an evaluative model that provides for Context, Input, and Process evaluation.

Operations 1.0 through 6.0 constitute Context Evaluation. As we pointed out in our discussion the information or data developed through performing the operations of conducting a needs assessment, stating goals, setting priorities, operationalizing goals, performing a functional/task analysis, and relating functions to goals is information that can be used by decision makers for making decisions. This particular information all relates to the context in which a program operates, information which is crucial to many kinds of decisions.

Operations 7.0 and 8.0 are designed to produce input information. A methods/means analysis and the process of selecting strategies requires the development of information relative to the inputs of a program. This comes in the form of descriptions of strategies, costs of personnel, materials, equipment, in-service training, development time, and so on. That is input data for decision making.

Finally, operations 9.0 and 10.0 are where process evaluation takes place. The essence of process evaluation is that is takes place while the treatment is in process rather than after it is all over. By monitoring how a process is working while it is being used (as you would do during both testing and implementation) you have the opportunity to make changes and improvements before the treatment is over and it is too late to do the clients any good. Of course, changes in a process require decisions and these are always best made with the aid of data from an evaluation of the process as it is taking place.

Evaluation of the product after treatment has been completed is only the last step in a process that is immediately recycled and repeated again and again so that evaluation must be seen as an on-going part of any system, rather than a discrete once-in-a-while operation.

Summary

We have presented what can properly be thought of as a road map to accountability. The model is an abstraction that points the way toward those concrete operations that must be tried if you want to become accountable. Any group of pupil personnel services workers undertaking to apply this model in their own setting will invariably need to modify the procedures to suit their circumstances. But the value of the model, like that of a road map, is in providing you with a sense of direction, an understanding of the orderly or systematic sequencing of events that is so important to accountability, and a guide to the territory that you must traverse in getting from here to there.

What is critical, in our estimation, is that you give appropriate time and attention in the beginning to developing a set of goals and objectives for your program and in establishing some priorities for those goals and objectives. Once you do that then everything else you do has the necessary framework for the decision making that must take place.

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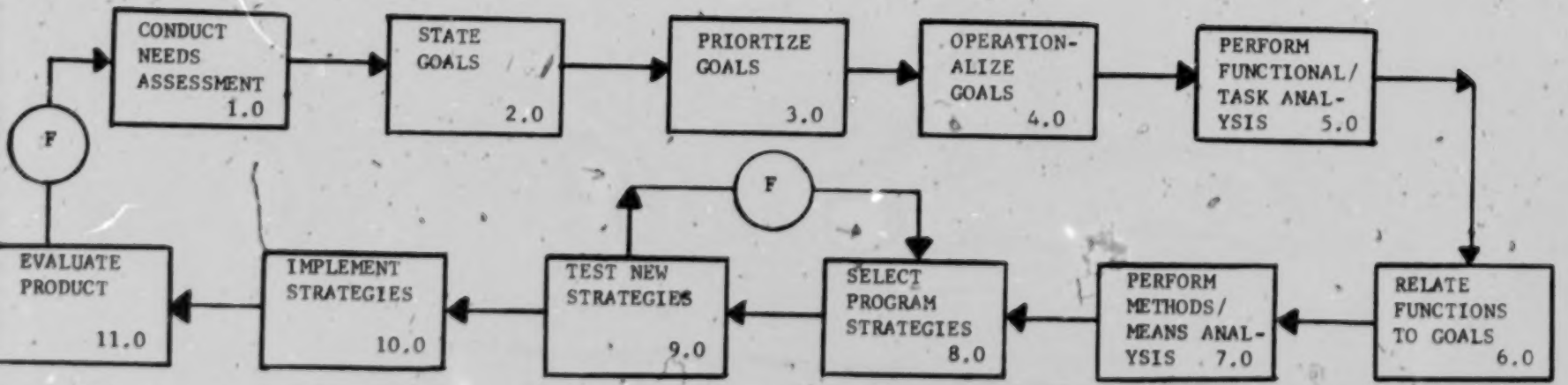
A SYSTEMS MODEL FOR PUPIL PERSONNEL PROGRAM DEVELOPMENT



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Counselors are so concerned with actualizing the objectives for guidance and counseling that they frequently develop tunnel vision and disassociate themselves from this country's far reaching educational goals. As counselors we should be very concerned with the mounting evidence that education is malfunctioning. Precisely those factors that have made public education so effective in the past are under fire today--the regimentation, lack of individualization, the rigid systems of seating, grouping, grading and the authoritarian role of the teacher. Too often our attention is turned toward our annual appraisals of education which include the many digited figures relating to swelling totals of students, teachers, institutions, dollars, and degrees. We may be susceptible to the same misapprehension about which Thomas Huxley scolded Americans 100 years ago--the delusion that "size equals grandeur".

Sidney Marland has expressed concern over the thousands and thousands of boys and girls who leave school with only the frailest of such basic skills as reading and mathematics. The diminishing confidence of the American public is apparent in their growing reluctance to push educational expenditures much further. Statistics of the U.S. Office of Education in 1965 suggest that 79.4% of public elementary and secondary school bond referendums were approved. By 1972, only 7 years later, that figure was only about 47%.

A Harris survey of public attitudes toward our major educational institution conducted in October 1972 revealed a sharp drop among those declaring a great deal of confidence in education. In 1966, 61% of the respondents held such affirmative opinions about education. Today the number is only 31%.

There is, this author fears, a loss of enchantment with our schools. Perhaps for the first time Americans, in significant numbers, are questioning the purpose of education, the competence of educators, and the usefulness of the system in preparing young minds for life in these challenging times.

To a degree, educators generally and counselors in particular, are responsible for some of the malaise affecting education. Far too many of us, for far too many years, have been guilty of not encouraging a closer link between the learning process and the needs and desires that occur in the lives of Americans in their homes, communities and especially in their work.

As Alvin Toffler has suggested in Future Shock--we have played a cruel and disabling trick on the youth of our country. He is steeped in his nation's past and that of the world. He studies ancient Greece and Rome, feudalism and the French Revolution. He is introduced to Bible Stories and patriotic legends. He is peppered with endless accounts of wars, revolutions and with each a date of the past. He may even be introduced to current events and thus offered a thin sliver of the present. And then time stops--it comes racing to an abrupt halt. The student is focused backward instead of forward. The future, banned from the classroom, is banned from his consciousness as well. It has been suggested that if our children are to adapt more successfully to rapid change, this distortion of time must be ended. We must sensitize them to the possibilities and probabilities of tomorrow. It is only with this type of education that, as suggested by the sociologist Benjamin Singer, each individual can develop a set of pictures of himself as he wishes to be in the future in addition to his present self image.

But where does all this leave our profession? If a society is to be viable, to survive and move ahead rather than regress, it must pay attention to its critics. If we accept the fact that schools are not doing the best possible job then hopefully we, as counselors, will accept the professional responsibility to do something about school conditions that are cheating our children. But our purpose must be to focus only on the ills of education in general but also those specifically in the realm of guidance and counseling.

A diagnosis of the ailment that is infecting guidance in general reveals many contributing factors: faith in the objectivity of test results and grades; limitations to the one-to-one relationship in counseling; preoccupation with techniques; observance of outmoded certification requirements; disregard of non-academic talents; over-involvement with college-bound students; and inability to comprehend and deal with the dynamics of the social revolution that is shaping cultures within this country.

In June, 1972, the National Advisory Council on Vocational Education made the following observations:

Counselors and counseling are being subjected to criticism by other educators, parents, students, and industry, and there is validity in this criticism.

Some national authorities have recommended elimination of elementary school counselors.

Numerous school boards have reassigned counselors to full time teaching duties as economy measures.

The Veterans Administration has removed the "request for counseling" question from their application for Educational Benefits form.

Counselors are much more competent in guiding persons toward college attendance than towards vocational education.

Job placement and follow-up services are not now being routinely provided as an important part of counseling and guidance programs.

In almost no setting is the counselor-counselee ratio low enough to justify strict one-to-one counseling, but counselors still persist in their attempts to use this technique, rather than group counseling approaches, as their primary method of helping people solve their problems.

Most counselors know very little about the world of work outside of education.

Counseling and guidance services are being rejected by the hard core disadvantaged as irrelevant and ineffective.

The New York State Advisory Council on Vocational Education in their 3rd Annual Report concludes, "It is widely felt that guidance and counseling services, particularly as they relate to occupational education, are, at best, inadequate." Ewald Nyquist, Commissioner of Education for New York State, in a speech before the annual meeting of the Capital District Personnel and Guidance Association, said, in effect, that many counselors were working on the perimeter of their professional objectives--too often doing what feels good instead of making an intervention that would make a real difference in a child's life; "... and too frequently unwilling or unable to face the need for reform and action in crisis situations."

Carkhuff's recent research suggests that minimally trained or even lay counselors obtain results essentially no different from those of professionally qualified counselors. Ginzberg tells us that counselors appear to spend too much time in assisting with college applications, in dealing with rule infractions, and in test administration. Few spend a significant amount of time in activities specifically designed to lead to improved decision-making and long-range planning, the expressed goals of guidance. This negative picture is intolerable.

But the author's purpose is not to berate our profession but to look for a cure for its ills. Belief in the adage, "Where there is smoke there is fire" suggests that our closet needs cleaning. However, faith in the ability of the profession to recognize deficiencies and to police itself can lead to improved counseling services. To accomplish this, however, a systematic approach is needed.

The author has come to recognize three stages or phases of education: 1) Planning, 2) Execution and 3) Evaluation. Unfortunately most of our efforts have been in the area of execution--the day to day operation of guidance services. Why we do things the way we do is so often difficult to explain. Procedures established years ago may still be in existence today. Little effort has gone into understanding why and how to improve services. Too much execution, some planning, and little evaluation is what occurs in many programs. The 3rd Phase--evaluation--is one of the author's primary concerns. It is this phase that we so often forget and relegate to insignificance. How often do we stop the execution and evaluate to see how we have met the objectives of planning.

It is the author's intention to address this concern more specifically by involving workshop participants in the experience of evaluating a typical high school program which uses process and materials developed by the New York State Personnel and Guidance Association. Hopefully, a sharing of ideas can lead us all to more beneficial enactment of educational counseling.

The following are the steps and materials required in a typical evaluation:

1. Request for Professional Advancement Team (PAT) services
    a. Counselor/administration/faculty discuss their desire to request PAT services
    b. School district requests PAT services from local Personnel & Guidance organization
    c. PAT is organized by local Personnel & Guidance group

2. Information needed by PAT prior to visitation:

   a. School time schedule
   b. Floor plan of school
   c. Administrative organization of the district and building staff
   d. Names and titles of the district administration, the administrative staff of the building to be visited, the pupil personnel service staff and the names of the department chairmen
   e. Educational philosophy of the school district
   f. The community make-up
   g. Student enrollment and number of teachers on staff
   h. Philosophy of the guidance program
   i. Objectives of the guidance program
   j. Description of the guidance program
   k. Administrative organization of the guidance department
   l. Names of the counselors, the grade levels they counsel, the counselor load and the job description

3. Preparation for the PAT Consultative Visit

   a. PAT chairman will meet with school district representatives to explain visitation procedures and establish master schedule for visitation
   b. Work out details for administering questionnaires
   c. PAT reviews philosophies, objectives, etc. of school-guidance programs and results of questionnaires
   d. PAT works out details for visitation

COUNSELOR ATTITUDE CONCERNING ACCOUNTABILITY AND NEEDED RESEARCH SKILLS

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Overview

A distinction between the terms accountability, research, and evaluation will be made to provide a common basis for discussion. School counselor attitudes towards accountability and the need to change those attitudes will constitute the first major part of the paper. Dissonance, a condition some think must exist for producing attitude change, will be produced by presenting some of the expectations and demands for accountability placed upon counselors, along with the fact that school counselors undertake a minimal amount of accountability studies.

Some of the negative attitudes counselors hold concerning accountability efforts are due to their misunderstanding the knowledge of experimental designs and statistics needed to undertake such efforts. Action research will provide the spring-board for a discussion of the utility of non-parametric statistics for school counselors in their accountability studies.

Accountability

Cramer (1970) in discussing research and the school counselor makes a definite distinction between accountability, research, and evaluation. Accountability is the cylindrical process of assessing needs, stating objectives, defining success criteria, measuring success, and evaluating success. Research is the systematic collection of the data upon which evaluation takes place and evaluation is the placing of a value on the degree of success obtained.

This paper will deal mainly with the research aspects of the accountability process. However, an important item - the counselor's attitude about his accountability role - warrants some attention before serious consideration can be given to the particulars of this role.

Attitudes

Krech, Crutchfield, and Ballachey (1962) define attitudes as:

> enduring systems of positive or negative evaluation, emotional feelings, and pro or con action tendencies with respect to social objects. p. 139

An attitude then is the way an individual feels about an aspect of his world. It is a predisposition to respond in a particular way to certain objects. Krech, Crutchfield, and Ballachey state that responses which may indicate attitudes are (a) cognitive (b) affective and (c) behavioral in nature.

You should answer these three questions to gain an understanding of your attitude about counselor accountability:

1. What do you think of the demand for accountability placed upon you?

2. How do you feel about undertaking accountability studies?

3. What accountability studies have you undertaken?

Your responses to these three questions might contain some of the typical thoughts and feelings of counselors about accountability:

1. You are probably not enthusiastic about its evaluative, judgemental nature.

2. You may feel that to judge or to evaluate another person is essentially negative.

3. Perhaps you think you do not have time for accountability efforts because of your service demands.

4. You may be fearful of that new and unknown process called accountability.

5. Perhaps you think your efforts would be in vain.

6. Maybe you think that accountability studies are <u>something</u> that <u>someone</u> (usually an outsider) performs.

7. Perhaps you think one needs expertise that you do not possess to perform accountability studies.

The amount of accountability efforts counselors undertake can also indicate their attitude about this aspect of their role. Roth (1968) surveyed counselors in the State of Wisconsin relative to the role and functions which they performed. Solicited also were their opinions as to how much time ideally they should spend performing various functions. Counselors ideally allotted eighteen percent of their time for accountability efforts. Actually they spend fourteen and one-half percent of their time on this function. In another study using a state-wide population, Demos and Denoitt (1965) found less than fifty percent of the respondents indicating they were accounting for any of their services. Indications are that accountability activities by counselors have been limited and it is something they have valued little.

These prevailing negative or neutral attitudes about accountability efforts by counselors must be changed if counselors are to undertake meaningful accountability studies. The vast importance of attitude on behavior is cited by Boring, Langfeld, and Weld (1958):

> Once attitudes have been learned they determine to a large extent what an individual perceives and how he behaves. p. 566

and by Kingsley and Garry (1957):

> The way one thinks, feels, and acts is determined largely by the dominant attitude of the moment. p. 472

Attitude Change

This writer would like to encourage you to reassess your attitude about school counselor accountability efforts. More specifically, I want you to reassess your attitude about the research expertise needed to undertake such studies.

Dressel (1965) states that attitudes may change via: (a) imitation (b) identification (c) changes in the group affiliations of the individual (d) enforced modification of behavior toward the object and (e) communication of knowledge and cultivation of intellectual abilities. p. 10 & p. 35 The efforts of this writer will be to communicate knowledge to you and to encourage cultivation of your intellectual abilities. According to Malec (1971) arousal of dissonance can also be an inducement

for attitude change. Dissonance will hopefully be produced by citing some of the expectations and demands for counselor accountability.

The counseling and guidance professional organizations have been one source of this demand for accountability. The American Personnel and Guidance Association (APGA) 1965 statement on The Counselor: Professional Preparation and Role (Loughary, 1965) refers to the need for counselor accountability at several points. Stated in reference to the attainment of competencies for the professional counselor is the following:

> The counselor understands the psychological knowledge and principles underlying the counseling relationship; he is aware of the assumptions and hypotheses upon which his work is based, and the extent to which they are supported by empirical research; he continually evaluates his work and maintains a constant concern for increasing his competence in a profession which is experiencing rapid growth in knowledge and in understanding of its role in our culture. p. 79

The Association for Counselor Education and Supervision (ACES) has also prepared a standards statement (Loughary, 1965). Section II: A-6 indicates the expectation that counselors should be aware of the role of research and have the needed skills to perform such research. The ACES statement contains other references to the need for counselor educators to promote counselor accountability efforts. Potential for engaging in research is one of the criteria set down for admissions consideration.

The American School Counselor Association (ASCA) Statement of Policy for Secondary School Counselors and Guidelines for Implementation of the ASCA Statement of Policy for Secondary School Counselors is the most specific of the three professional statements (Loughary, 1965). Support is given to the APGA and ACES positions that a counselor should possess competencies to undertake accountability efforts to assess the needs of pupils and the effects of the counseling program.

The ASCA guidelines for counselors contains some definite reference to the need for accountability efforts by counselors:

> In order that the school counselor might fulfill his responsibilities in research and evaluate his own effectiveness, an atmosphere of flexibility and growth accompanied by astute planning should exist within a school. This atmosphere

> and planning should recognize (1) the stimulus to professional growth as well as service to pupils through experimentation with varied methods, materials, and use of personnel, and (2) the value of accepting better alternatives for accomplishing tasks. p. 105

The policy statements of the professional associations in reference to accountability efforts are, therefore, very clear. The counselor trainee should receive appropriate training in his educational program to enable and to stimulate him to later account for his services in a field setting.

Counselors and counselor educators lend support to the accountability demands stated by the professional associations. Betz (1970) is definite that the 70's will be the era for accountability and thinks counselors must take lead in this endeavor or someone less knowing will. Liddle and Droll (1969) think a need exists for counselors to more actively pursue accountability studies. VanRiper (1972) sees increased professionalism as an outcome of accountability efforts. Green (1966) states additional support for counselor accountability as it can be the catalyst for producing change in the educational institution as well as being the basis for counseling intervention. They all conclude that counselors must take the lead in evaluating the outcomes of their interventions.

Rothney (1972) summarizes well the demands and expectations placed upon counselors for accountability:

> There can be no doubt that the counseling movement which has existed and even grown for more than half a century on the basis of boldness and faith, is under fire, and there must be some doubt that it can long continue with any semblance to what it has been in the past. It must define its objectives more adequately, indicate more clearly the nature of a counselor's specialty in a community of specialists, and provide sound evidence that it can accomplish its stated intentions. The time has passed when counselors can refuse to accept responsibility for their activities. There is no reason to believe that they have arrived at a point where mere description of the processes they employ will be accepted as evidence of their efficacy. p. 149

Summarizing the present situation pertaining to counselor accountability efforts one arrives at two conclusions. First, both professionals in

counseling and guidance and the consumers of counselor services demand and expect accountability by counselors. Secondly, such accountability efforts to date have been limited.

Research Knowledge Needed

This writer thinks one of the reasons that counselors have undertaken minimal accountability studies is a misunderstanding as to which research skills they should possess. This section of the paper will be based on two assumptions:

1. The problems of assessing needs, stating objectives, defining success criteria, and measuring success can be met.

2. The action research design is the most appropriate design for research in the field setting.

Research Designs

Isaac and Michael (1972) have developed a scheme for classification of research methodology. This system is described below:

1. historical - to reconstruct the past objectively and accurately, often in relation to the tenability of an hypothesis.

2. descriptive - to describe systematically a situation or area of interest factually and accurately.

3. developmental - to investigate patterns and sequences of growth and/or change as a function of time.

4. case and field - to study intensively the background, current status, and environmental interactions of a given social unit: an individual, group, institution, or community.

5. correlational - to investigate the extent to which variations in one factor correspond with variations in one or more other factors based on correlation coefficients.

6. causal-comparative - to investigate possible cause-and-effect relationships by observing some existing consequence and searching back through the data for plausible causal factors.

7. true experimental - to investigate possible cause-and-effect relationships by exposing one or more experimental groups to one or more treatment conditions and comparing the results to one or more control groups not receiving the treatment (random assignment being essential).

8. quasi-experimental - to approximate the conditions or the true experiment in a setting which does not allow the control and/or manipulation of all relevant variables.

9. action - to develop new skills or new approaches to solve problems with direct application to the classroom or other applied setting. p. 14

Gamsky (1969) in concluding a presentation on Action Research and The School Counselor states:

> In summary, it is one thing to do experimental research in a laboratory and quite another to do it in a local school setting. Experimental methodology has contributed a great deal to counseling theory and knowledge. Unfortunately, it has also fostered an attitude of rigidity for counselors in their approach to research within the unique demands of the school setting. Experimental models, while well suited to laboratory experiments, are not totally fitted for research in actual school settings (Truax, 1969). This not to say that counselors should ignore formal types of research or that they should engage in "unscientific" studies, but rather that greater emphasis needs to be placed on the type of research which will provide solutions for the kinds of problems that they must cope with daily. They need to divest themselves of methodologies that hamper research at the local level.
>
> Field research is usually informal, often difficult and sometimes a messy business. Rigorous, controlled, variable manipulating experiments are difficult to carry out. The process is not as logical and orderly as more scientifically oriented researchers would like it to be. However, these matters are

> hardly sufficient justification for counseling practitioners to shun all attempts at research. p. 7

The reader is referred to Gamsky's paper for the logic which forms the foundation for his concluding remarks.

Statistical Analysis

Of particular interest is Gamsky's quoting of Corey (1953) that in action research the emphasis is in the particular subjects investigated rather than in the total theoretical population represented by the sample under study. This implies that no assumptions or inferences about the normality of the population distribution will be made. Since an assumption of normality is needed for utilization of parametric statistics, their use is ruled out for accountability studies using the action research design. Therefore, knowledge of probability theory, normal theory, t-test, chi-square test, and the F distribution is not needed to undertake accountability studies.

You might well ask at this point what kind of statistical knowledge is needed when performing action research? Corey (1953) comments on this question in his book:

> In my own work with teachers and others who actually are engaged in action research, two generalizations about the role of statistics have impressed me most strongly. The first is that when it becomes necessary for school people to learn how to treat quantitative data in order to answer questions in which they are genuinely interested the learning of statistics goes rapidly. In other words, when the ability to compute and use statistical indices is a means to an important end it is not resisted. The second generalization is that familiarity with just a few of the basic statistical concepts and operations is sufficient to help the action researcher study his problem more scientifically. p. 129

Corey then indicates the following statistical concepts and operations are needed:

A. Central Tendency
   1. mean
   2. median

B. Variability
   1. range
   2. interquartile range
   3. semi-interquartile range

C. Correlational
   1. rank correlation
   2. product moment correlation

Shumsky (1958) supports Corey in his statements relative to the statistical concepts and operations needed for performing action research. These statistics are part of the non-parametric statistical family since no assumptions are made about the precise form of the sample population.

Other more sophisticated non-parametric statistics are available and you are encouraged to investigate their utility. Bradley (1968) cites a number of advantages of non-parametric statistics over parametric statistics:

1. Mathematical sophistication needed is of a high school algebra level.

2. Application is easy.. Frequently all that is required is counting, or adding, subtracting, and ranking.

3. Speed of application is generally faster than with parametric techniques.

4. Statistical efficiency is superior to the most efficient parametric methods when all assumptions concerning parametric test cannot be met.

5. Practical significance levels rather than statistical significance levels are used.

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SECTION III

EVALUATION

THE IMPACT OF EVALUATION: A SYSTEMS PERSPECTIVE

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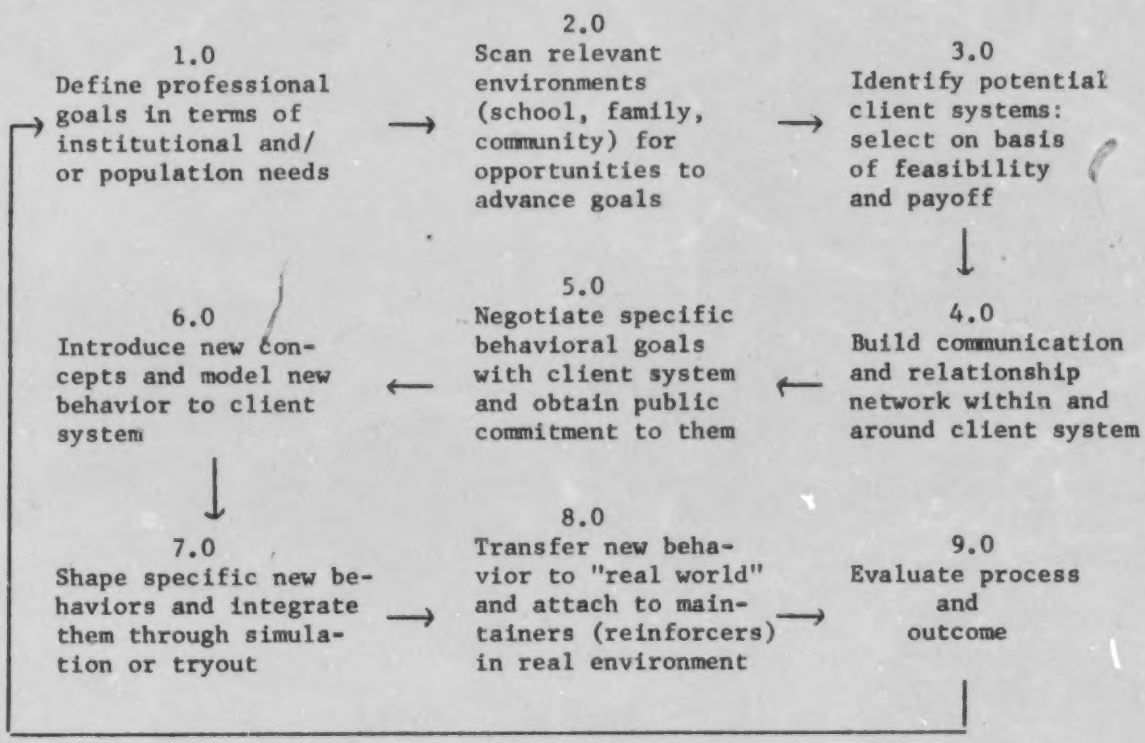
The application of general systems theory to the educational enterprise has resulted in a number of systematic models for the development and evaluation of educational programs. Many of these models have demonstrated considerable utility in guiding educators in their efforts to create a positive impact on students.

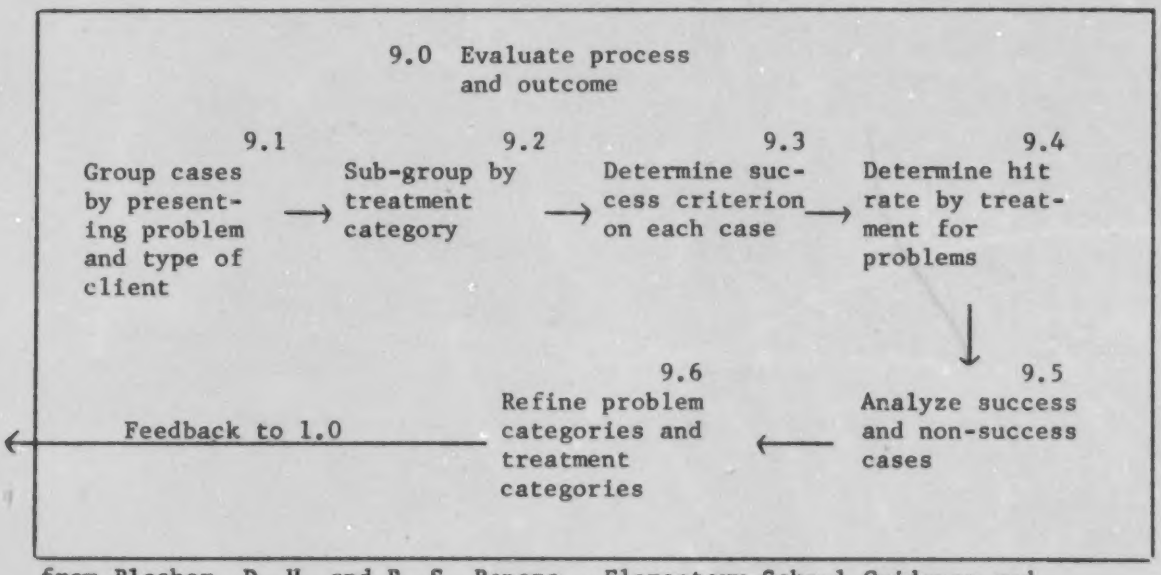
During the past few years, the guidance profession has witnessed a parallel movement toward conceptualizing counseling and guidance from a systems perspective (Blocher, 1971; Blocher and Rapoza, 1972;* Blocher, Dustin, and Dugan, 1971; Cooley and Hummel, 1969; Loughary, 1966; Pulvino, 1971; Thoreson, 1969; Zifferblatt, 1972). Although each of these models describes the practice of guidance with varying degrees of complexity, they can all be reduced to the same basic paradigm.

Cooley and Hummel (1969) describe this paradigm as follows:

> "A systems approach is a method for analyzing and realizing the values, goals or policies of a human enterprise. The method makes explicit 'the structure or organization of an orderly whole, clearly showing the interrelationships of the parts to each other and to the whole itself' (Silvern, 1965, p. 2). At least three steps are involved in developing a systems approach:
>
> 1. Translate the broad aims of the enterprise into objectives which are explicit and operational.
>
> 2. Design the procedures which are intended to accomplish these objectives, identify the relevant variables which the procedures are intended to

* The Blocher and Rapoza "Systematic-eclectic Model for Counseling-Consulting" reproduced on Page is illustrative of guidance-system models.


1.0
Define professional goals in terms of institutional and/ or population needs
2.0
Scan relevant environments (school, family, community) for opportunities to advance goals
3.0
Identify potential client systems: select on basis of feasibility and payoff
4.0
Build communication and relationship network within and around client system
5.0
Negotiate specific behavioral goals with client system and obtain public commitment to them
6.0
Introduce new concepts and model new behavior to client system
7.0
Shape specific new behaviors and integrate them through simulation or tryout
8.0
Transfer new behavior to "real world" and attach to maintainers (reinforcers) in real environment
9.0
Evaluate process and outcome



from Blocher, D. H. and R. S. Rapoza. Elementary School Guidance and Counseling, 1972, 7:2, p. 107.

order or to change, and construct a model which suggests a priori and consequent relationships among the identified variables.

3. Implement the model and evaluate the results of the innovation in terms of the operationally stated objectives."

A systems model thus includes specific statements of objectives, intervention techniques, and evaluation procedures. The function of the evaluation is to provide feedback, which can consequently be used to revise the objectives and the intervention procedures. The model is thus a cyclical one, with evaluation as a built-in feedback mechanism.

The purpose of this paper is to look more closely at the evaluation component in systems models of guidance programs. The primary function of evaluation is to provide information for decision-making. However, engaging in evaluation may also yield results above and beyond that of merely providing feedback. It is possible to view evaluation not only as a feedback mechanism, but also as a method for intervening in educational organizations.

Any intervention in an organization may trigger a chain of events that has far-reaching ramifications for the total system, even though initially it may have been directed at only one element in the system. Gouldner (1964) described the nature of this process in citing the contributions of systems theory to the understanding of human organizations:

1. It explains that a change in one part of an organization can yield unforeseen consequences in another part.

2. It shows that change can be accomplished by circumspect and indirect manipulation of more distant parts of the system as well as by frontal attack.

3. It allows for multiple possibilities for intervention in solving a single problem. Because of the interrelatedness of sub-systems, several targets for intervention may lead to a change in the total system.

The consequences of engaging in systematic evaluation of guidance programs may be felt in many parts of an educational institution. The exact nature of these effects, however, depend to a certain degree on the kind of evaluation procedures which are employed. Thus, before enumerating what some of

those potential effects might be, it will be necessary to examine the evaluation process in greater detail.

The type of evaluation suggested by the systems approach falls into the general category of "action research." The term "action research" was coined to describe "...investigational procedures which deal with the solution of practical problems in relation to the total school situation. The focus is on operational nuts and bolts problem solving" (Gamsky, 1973, p. 264). "...The major goal of action research is to produce change of some kind. As such, it is basically oriented toward immediate and practical conclusions for specific situations rather than toward broad principles applicable to many circumstances."

Traditional research models with their emphasis on experimental rigor have not demonstrated their usefulness when taken out of the laboratory and applied to the solution of day-to-day problems in operational settings. Experimental rigor demands that the investigator have some kind of control over all of the variables which may influence the outcome of his investigation. However, as Barnes (1967) and others have observed, such ideal conditions are hardly ever approximated in behavioral science research, even in the laboratory, much less in actual school settings.

It is no wonder that counselor practitioners have been frustrated in their efforts to conduct research in their own settings. The inapplicability of traditional experimental research models and the lack of alternative models have been effective deterrents to local research efforts. The action research model, however, legitimizes decision-oriented evaluation programs and recognizes the difficulties in implementing such programs.

The assumptive base underlying the action research paradigm differs substantially from that underlying basic research. Corey (1953, p. 161) identified the following major differences between basic research and action research:

	Basic Research	Action Research
1. Major purpose	"Formulation of new generalizations, explanatory principles, and scientific theories or laws that go beyond the populations and situations represented, with the expectation that some other person will bring about improvement in practice.	"Usually stemming from an urgent or felt need, with the goal of application of results and improvement of practice in the particular setting where the group or investigator works, through processes of group planning, execution, and evaluation.

	Basic Research	Action Research
2. Generalizability of results	"High value placed on sampling procedures as a basis for generalizations.	"Interest in the particular subjects investigated rather than in the total theoretical population represented by the sample under study.
3. Design of the investigation	"Careful planning in advance of the investigation and adherence to the design of the study throughout the project, with the reporting done in sufficient detail to permit replication of the study.	"A developmental design, with the hypothesis and method subject to modification during the course of the action program, and with due consideration to all interdependent groups in any changes to be made.
4. Methodology	"Desirability of technical training or equipment which frequently involves statistical sampling, testing or experimental procedures.	"Desirability of training in the concepts of group dynamics as background for the cooperative study of practical problems, with the guiding theory that of human interaction by which change is either facilitated or resisted, and with frequent difficulties of interaction with the community by way of choice with problem areas, specific formulation of the problem, selection of procedures, presentation of findings, and application to practice. The scientists or scholars in their role of democratic leaders stimulate and develop the talents of the group.
5. Criteria for evaluating the investigation	"Judgment of the quality of the investigation based on the possibility of generalizing methods and findings beyond the sample and situation studied. Thus adding to the body of knowledge in the particular	"Determination of the value of the action project in terms of the extent to which methods and finding make possible improvement in practice in a particular situation and realization of social and educational purposes."

Corey's observations emphasize that action research can be an integral and vital element in the functioning of an educational system. It is this characteristic of action research that makes it something more than just a method for generating information.

Researchers in the behavioral sciences have long been aware that mere observation, study, or measurement of an event has the potential to alter it. This interaction between measurement procedures and the variables being measured has and will continue to perplex researchers and confound results. However, the confounding effects of evaluation are considerably diminished in systems approach models. Evaluation, in systems approaches, is not a one-shot, isolated activity. Rather, it is an on-going process. The process of evaluating may thus actually add to the effects of the intervention strategies. Since the purpose of action research is change-oriented, these consequences, however plaguing from the researcher's point of view, may from the perspective of the practitioner have several advantages. Thus, a systematic program for the evaluation of counseling and guidance interventions may benefit a school counselor and the total school setting in a number of ways. Four of these potential gains are discussed below.

1. The attention generated by the decision to evaluate some aspect of the guidance program may enhance the effectiveness of the program under investigation.

There is considerable evidence to suggest that the nature of the expectations one holds about a person or an event is positively related to the subsequent behavior one expresses in relation to that event. The Rosenthal studies (1968), for example, demonstrated that the achievement of a group of elementary school students with like abilities was differentially linked to the prior information that their teachers had about them. Students who were reported to their teachers as having considerable potential for growth gained more, as a group, than those who were identified as having little potential. The investigators speculated that these differing expectations caused very subtle differences in the teachers' behavior which led to the differential achievement gains in the students.

The desire to demonstrate positive outcomes in a program which is being evaluated may likewise be translated into behaviors, however subtle, which do indeed contribute to the overall effectiveness of the program. The over-zealous counselor should be cautioned, however, that the desire to show positive outcomes should not bias his observations of the outcomes. To do so would jeopardize the primary purpose of evaluation.

However, if the enthusiasm is directed only at making the intervention as strong as it can be, positive expectations can be a powerful ally to the counselor-researcher.

2. In the planning and implementation of evaluation procedures the counselor may become more aware of the strengths and weaknesses in his/her professional behavior repertoire and the nature of his/her belief system.

If evaluation is to be a meaningful professional activity, the counselor-researcher must be very clear as to precisely what and whom are being evaluated. Sound evaluation procedures demand that the investigator be as explicit as possible about all of the variables under investigation. This includes being able to specify exactly what aspects of the counselor's total repertoire of professional behavior are being examined, who the intended recipients of the intervention are, and what the expected outcomes will be.

This need for specificity can be the occasion for considerable self-examination on the part of the counselor-researcher. As the investigator attempts to describe just what procedures will be employed to achieve the desired outcomes, many previously unknown dimensions of the counselor's behavior may be brought to light. In addition, the need to be specific about the effects that the intervention will have on clients may prompt re-examination of the kind of client behaviors that the counselor values. Such confrontation may be a very positive outcome of engaging in evaluation from the perspective of professional self-renewal.

3. Increased knowledge about and heightened participation in the guidance effort may result from bringing in other members of the school and community as partners in the evaluation program.

No school guidance program can exist without the support of students and other school personnel who are willing to use guidance services. Equally important for survival is the psychological and financial support of school administrators and governing boards. It has been suggested that gaining and maintaining support for guidance programs is partly a function of the extent to which interested publics are involved in the planning and evaluation of guidance services (Pulvino, 1971).

Opportunities for total school and community involvement in the guidance program can be systematically built into the evaluation process. Students, teachers, administrators, and parents should all be routinely consulted in

the needs assessment phase of evaluation. Furthermore, the self-reports of recipients of services, if systematically and objectively solicited, are one valuable source of information regarding the efficacy of interventions.

Creative counselors may find numerous other ways of involving interested publics in the evaluation program. For example, interested students may be enlisted to assist in the actual implementation of the evaluation procedures. Students who participate in this fashion may thus gain a working knowledge of research methodology, as well as a greater appreciation for guidance services.

4. The counselor's attitude toward the importance of systematic evaluation and the actual procedures used may serve as models for other professionals in the school system.

Guidance programs are not the only aspect of educational programming which should be subjected to systematic review. In fact, there is probably no educational practice or practitioner that could not be improved by feedback gained through systematic evaluation. Yet this fact is accepted in principle only, as the behavior of most professional educators would indicate.

The pressures of time in dealing with large numbers of students and the lack of expertise in research methodology places evaluation of teaching strategies at a low level on the hierarchy of priorities for most teachers. At the same time most of them are anxious to consider ways of increasing their professional competency.

An active and visible commitment to systematic evaluation on the part of guidance personnel may serve as an impetus for other professionals to bridge the gap between their beliefs and practice, particularly if improved services are the result. Teachers may not only see the tangible benefits of systematic feedback, but may also come to view the counselor's expertise in evaluation methodology as a valuable resource to be shared.

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EVALUATION IN COUNSELING AND GUIDANCE

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INTRODUCTION

The writer is both pleased and honored to have been invited to take part in the 1973 Summer Workshop in Counseling and Guidance. He looks forward to spending a day with the workshop participants and in again visiting his alma mater.

In order that the writer not mislead his readers and workshop participants, he wishes to at the outset issue two major disclaimers. First, he is not nor was he ever a specialist in evaluation. He has no particular knowledge of research or statistics or design of evaluation instruments. Second, he is not now either a practicing counselor or counselor educator. After completing his Ph.D. in Counseling and Guidance in 1961, he has served as a counselor-administrator, administrator of pupil services and since 1968 a general central office type administrator. He is perhaps a counselor gone awry or even amook. He presumes he was selected because he once did a thorough review of the literature in counseling and guidance. Or perhaps it was because of his perspective as a general administrator and former counselor.

Having said the above, what follows then will be (1) a definition of some terms, (2) a review of the evaluation literature of the mid-1960's, (3) some observations on recent changes in public education which in turn may have had an impact on counseling and guidance programs and, (4) some problems that appear to persist in attempts to evaluate counseling and guidance programs.

DEFINITIONS

As a point of departure, the writer should define the word evaluation as he uses it--especially since evaluation is the central theme of the entire second week of the Summer Workshop. Evaluation will be used to mean a process of determining worth. An evaluation of the counseling and guidance program is simply an effort to determine their worth.

There are, the writer would maintain, two basic methods of evaluation. Type I is to study counseling and guidance programs and processes in a survey fashion. This approach to evaluation allows one to answer the question, "How do the provisions and practices of the counseling and guidance program of our school system compare with those of others?" Typically, the research instrument is some type of check list measured against an agreed upon standard such as APGA position paper, State Department of Education guidelines or Accrediting Association criteria.

The second approach is to study the effects of the counseling and guidance programs on the pupils. This Type II approach to evaluation allows one to answer the question, "How can we tell whether or not we are achieving the objectives of our counseling and guidance programs?" Typically, the research instrument is some type of questionnaire and/or interview measured against each program's stated objectives. The writer still subscribes to the following four major objectives for a quality counseling and guidance program: (1) To develop an individual who accepts himself as a worthy individual and who better understands his strengths and weaknesses; (2) To develop an individual who understands the resources and opportunities available to him in furthering his development; (3) To develop an individual who makes wise educational, vocational and personal decisions and who will continue to use intelligent planning and decision-making; and (4) To develop an individual who has a sense of responsibility for his own decisions and actions. So much for a definition of terms.

THE EVALUATION LITERATURE OF THE MID-1960's

It appears that most reported evaluations of counseling and guidance programs used the Type I approach--a survey of the services. Only a small proportion of the reported evaluations used the Type II approach--the effects on pupils. Most of what was reported in the professional journals of counseling and guidance, and included in the Review of Educational Research, as it related to elementary and secondary school programs, was not evaluation at all. Much of the literature of the mid-1960's dealt with organization and administration, counselor assignment, counselor-pupil ratios, data processing and the counselor, mental health team approaches and the coordination of counseling and guidance services within the pupil personnel concept. The writer will not here include any details of the literature, but will share these with the participants when he makes his oral presentation.

RECENT CHANGES IN PUBLIC EDUCATION WHICH MAY HAVE HAD AN IMPACT ON COUNSELING AND GUIDANCE

As the writer reflects back on his own education as a counselor and on his subsequent experience in four different public school systems of varying size, he is aware of many recent changes in public education and wonders what impact they have had on counseling and guidance. First, how about the counselor and accountability? Many states now have some type of mandatory accountability statutes. True, its initial focus appears to be on learning outcomes in the language arts, math, science and social studies areas. The intent, however, is clear--that all phases of public education must become more "accountable." A major thrust of most accountability legislation is a focus away from input (teaching and counseling) toward output (learning by the pupils). Type II evaluation of counseling and guidance programs appear to be much more needed today.

Second, how about the counselor and the curriculum? Little mention was made in my education as a would-be counselor of a role I might play in changing the curriculum of a school--changing the system if need be to meet pupil needs. If counselors can and do help change--improve--curriculum, how can that be evaluated? Perhaps it can not.

Third, how about the counselor and group processes? It appears that group counseling is much more a part of the counselor's tool-kit than was once true. It is not only an efficient use of the counselor's time, but the group itself is a potent resource. Can one evaluate the role of the counselor in a group process? For what can he be held accountable in terms of its outcomes?

Fourth, how about the counselor and the emerging cooperative education programs? A recent trend is the cooperative education teacher who has a pupil in a vocational education class in the morning and supervises and assists him in a related on-the-job experience in the afternoon. This teacher helps the pupil plan his next semester program, his plans beyond high school and frequently even involves Mom and Dad. Will teachers of the future again become teacher-counselors and leave only specialized counseling to the counselor? Can one evaluate the role of the counselor as he or she interacts with teachers? For what can the counselor be held accountable in terms of pupil outcomes and the emergence of cooperative education?

Fifth, how about the counselor and specialization? Will evaluation-accountability lead to greater specialization within counseling staffs? We now see the college counselor, the vocational counselor, the drug counselor, the Black counselor, the Chicano counselor, the drop-out counselor and more. Can one evaluate the role of the specialist counselor?

It appears to this writer that evaluation of counseling and guidance may have become a more difficult undertaking with passage of time rather than a less difficult one. Details of an ESEA Title III project soon to be funded at Cherry Creek Senior High School dealing with "Counselor Accountability in a Suburban Campus High School" will be shared with workshop participants when this writer makes his oral presentation. Hopefully, this presentation will provide <u>one</u> way to attack a very difficult problem.

PROBLEMS THAT PERSIST IN ATTEMPTING TO EVALUATE COUNSELING AND GUIDANCE PROGRAMS

Most evaluation problems appear to exist in trying to determine what effect our guidance and counseling programs have on pupils. The writer cites as evidence the scarcity of this type of evaluation over descriptions of programs.

One problem is the difficulty of sampling, especially in follow-up studies. Did everyone answer? If not, how would the opinions of those not answering affect the findings? Did the "successful" (top half of the class) reply and the "failures" (bottom half of the class) not reply?

A second problem is that of criteria. What changes do we expect to take place in behavior of pupils after counseling and guidance services are offered in a school? A sample of some that have actually been used includes (1) fewer drop-outs, (2) fewer failures, (3) better quality of work as measured by grades, (4) greater satisfaction of vocational choice, (5) greater certainty of vocational choice, (6) increased participation in extra-curricular activities, (7) fewer changes in class programs, (8) increased self-knowledge and (9) increased knowledge about educational and vocational opportunities.

A third problem has to do with the assumptions regarding cause and effect. Does counseling and guidance really deserve the credit? For example, a pupil's study habits may improve which results in his earning better grades. Can counseling take the credit for this change? The student may simply have been lonely but as a result of making friends and being accepted by peers showed academic improvement.

A fourth problem related to cause and effect has to do with long-range evaluation. Perhaps as our society grows more complex the only real help a counselor can give a pupil is to help him prepare for the reasonably immediate future. Five year follow-ups may not be valid because too much has intervened between the last counseling and guidance and

the time of the survey. We may need frequent, immediate follow-up procedures.

What kinds of evaluation remain to be done? In a word--many. The writer has attempted to define some terms, describe the nature of evaluations of the mid-1960's, comment on recent changes influencing counseling and how it is evaluated and outlined a few of the problems that persist in evaluating counseling and guidance.

AN ASSESSMENT SCHEMATIC FOR SCHOOL COUNSELORS

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School counseling incorporates within its parameters a variety of services to pupils, staff, and parents. To adequately meet the demands of school counseling individual counselors frequently perform duties which encompass individual or small group counseling, consultation with staff and parents, and involvement as intervention agents in the schools social milieu. Procedures chosen in individual situations are usually determined by the demands of particular counseling cases, expectations of the counselor's public, and adherence to the counselor's preferred mode of operation.

The goals of counseling are consistent with general goals of education, i.e., the educational maturation of students, the development of pupils' awareness about individual and societal responsibilities, the transference of societal norms and mores through the educational process, and the personal growth and self-knowledge of individual students.

To accomplish these rather broad educational goals it is suggested that counselors develop specific programs which utilize their roles as counselor, consultant, and intervention agent to focus upon the key elements of student educational achievement; personal growth and understanding; and social development. The purpose of this paper is to outline one means for accomplishing this end, i.e., the incorporation of a systematic, on-going, developing assessment system which can be used to determine whether student needs are being met while providing a basis for dynamic program development. It is the author's intention that this paper will provide a framework around which the practicing counselor can build his assessment system. It is not intended to be the last word in assessment.

Understanding and appreciation for the system presented will be partially dependent upon the reader's familiarization with the following assumptions (Weitz, 1964, p. 120-121):

(1) Assessment techniques used are sophisticated enough to note changes in students attitudes and/or behaviors.

(2) Data provided through use of assessment procedures will be helpful in assisting students confirm or reject their evaluations of situations.

(3) Measurement used has the potential for clues as to where further exploration may be desirable.

(4) Techniques employed can point to areas that counselors might find profitable to examine in more detail with students.

(5) The use of assessment techniques can serve as a communication bridge between students and counselors.

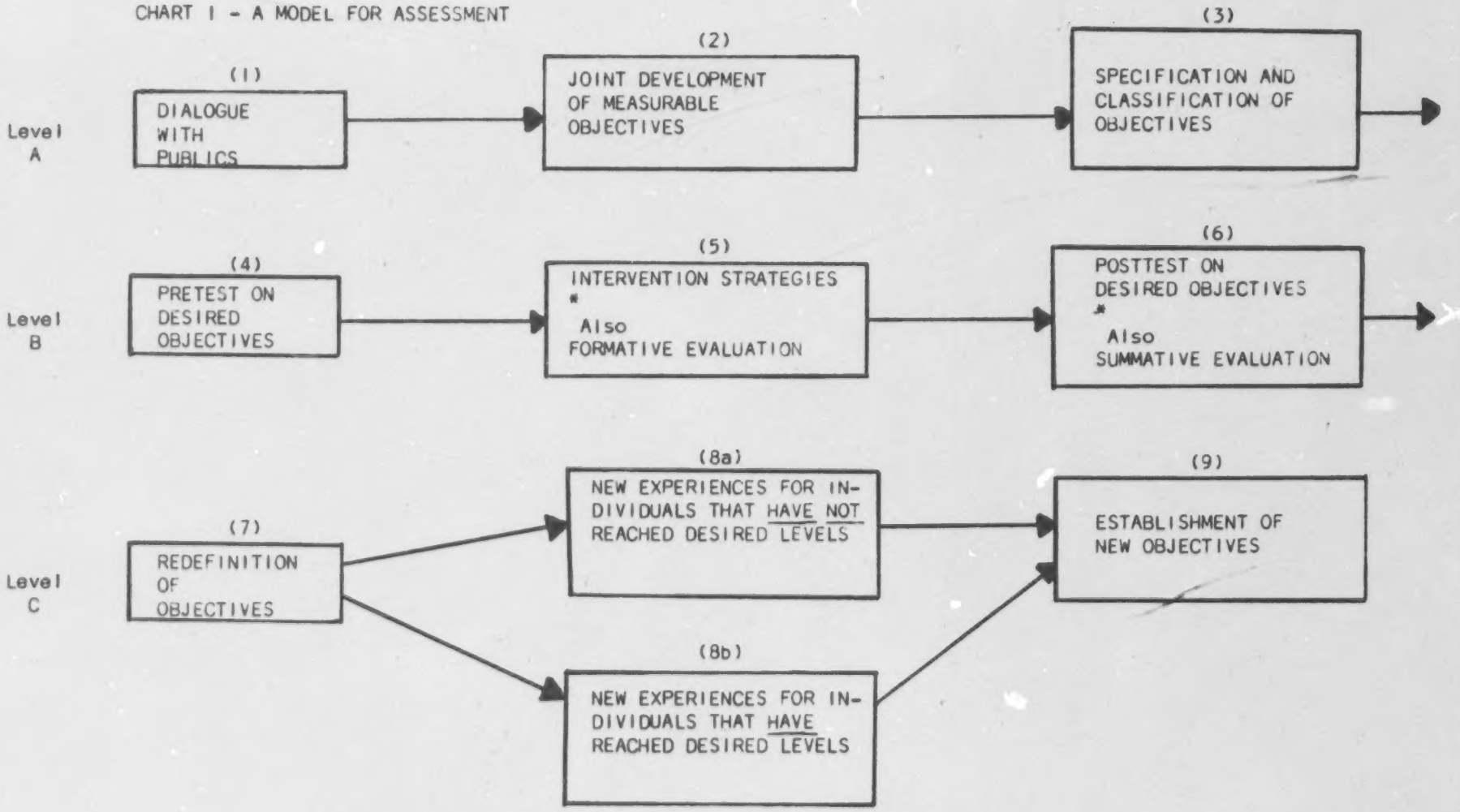
Level A - Chart 1

The initial level (level A) of program development must be centered on ascertaining student needs. A good approach for doing this is through communication with those individuals that have some control or say as to what a student will or will not be exposed to in the educational setting. These individuals will be referred to as the counselor's public and usually include several functionaries who are responsible for the development of students: the parents, the administration, the teaching faculty, the counselor, and students themselves.

Level A step one suggests that counselors must initiate open dialogue with his publics. This dialogue [described in detail in Pulvino and Sanborn (1972)] is the foundation on which counselor initiated programs must rest. A counselor, by himself, cannot or at least, should not, determine programs. He must incorporate the wishes, desires, and needs of those for whom, and with whom he works. Vehicles for communication, i.e., discussions, attitudinal surveys, solicited written responses, and unsolicited inputs should provide counselors with information relevant to public needs. Incorporation of information thus obtained can provide the basis for development of measurable objectives [Level A, step 2--also described in Pulvino and Sanborn (1972)] by counselors and their publics.

Once general objectives are established through the dialogue process they must be outlined in specific attainable form. Objectives thus determined must be based upon individual student behavior, be stated in a manner which is measurable, indicate that behavior which will be expected at conclusion of the educational program, and outline the

CHART I - A MODEL FOR ASSESSMENT



*The program described above was developed by integrating and expanding models of evaluation presented by Pulvino and Sanborn (1972) and Sullivan and O'Hare (1971).

criterion on which the terminal behavior will be evaluated. To help the counselor understand this process Lee (1972) has prepared an outline for establishing counseling objectives which he adapted from Mager's (1972) Goal Analysis.

Lee's Outline--Preparing Instructional Objectives

Definition of Terms:

Behavior: Refers to any visible activity displayed by a student.

Terminal Behavior: Refers to the behavior you and/or the student would like to be able to demonstrate at the time your influence over him ends.

Criterion: Is a standard or test by which terminal behavior is evaluated.

Characteristics of Objectives:

1. A counseling and guidance objective describes an intended OUTCOME rather than a description or summary of content or process.

2. One characteristic of a usefully stated objective is that it is stated in behavioral, or performance, terms that describe what the student will be DOING when demonstrating his accomplishment of the objective.

3. The statement of objectives for an entire counseling and guidance program will consist of several specific statements.

4. The objective that is most usefully stated is one that best communicates the counseling intent of the person selecting the objective--student, counselor, or both through mutual contract.

Method for Writing OBJECTIVES:

1. Usefully objective statements ought to specify what a student SHOULD be doing as a result of coming into contact with a counselor, this is specified by the student, counselor, of mutually agreed upon. This is distinct from an implementation statement which specifies HOW the objective is to be accomplished.

2. Identify the terminal behavior further by name; you can specify the kind of behavior that will be accepted as evidence that the student has achieved the objective.

3. Try to define the desired behavior by describing the important conditions under which the behavior will be expected to occur.

4. Specify the criteria of acceptable performance by describing how well or to what degree of approximation the student must perform to be considered acceptable.

Level B - Chart 1

Assuming that the counselor has used Lee's approach or another which terminates with objectives stated in observable measurable form the counselor is encouraged to undertake a testing program which follows the basic model of "pretesting-program involvement-posttesting-interpretation." Before initiating testing, however, the counselor is urged to review the assumptions outlined above by Weitz (1964) and to consider suggestions made by Goldman (1969; 1972) and Hill (1969).

Goldman (1969) offers six basic considerations for any testing program. Each must be considered and provisions for implementation must be devised if the effects of testing are to have a positive impact on the individual being tested. A summary of the six considerations follows:

1. Parsimony - Tests should be administered only as they are needed. They should not be given to individuals if they will not be used in personal, educational, or vocational aspects of counseling. Tests should not be used haphazardly but must be used only when the test can serve some useful purpose for the person being tested.

2. Productivity - Can the test provide new information for the individual? If it can, it may be advisable to use it. If it cannot, do not test. Plan tests differentially for different people taking into consideration their individual needs and the purposes for which the testing results will be used.

3. Comprehensibility - Test results and their subsequent interpretation must be understandable to the individual. The counselor must be able to interpret tests in a manner which will be meaningful to the individual. If he cannot provide a comprehensive explanation of test

results and their implications for the counselee, the counselor should refrain from initiating testing.

4. Acceptability - The counselor is responsible for determining before testing if the interpreted results are likely to have any impact on the counselee. If evidence indicates that test results will not be accepted and that they will make little or no difference the counselor should not proceed with testing.

5. Involvement - Tests should only be administered in those situations where the individual is an active, interested participant in the total process. If he is not, test results will not benefit the counselee or the counselor.

6. Change - If each of the above conditions is adequately satisfied, and tests are used for the individual, an observable change should occur. If a change in attitudes, behavior, knowledge, or emotions is not apparent, testing probably has not been effective and should cease.

Implementation of adequate testing programs can occur only if individuals' personal rights are respected. The counselor has an ethical responsibility to protect these rights. This ethical responsibility has been discussed by many authors with Hill (1969) being one of the more recent. He outlines numerous areas of counselor responsibility which are partially discussed below.

Individual(s) administering and interpreting tests must be highly competent in "both the technical and the human aspects of testing and test use." Counselors with only a cursory knowledge are ethically "off-limits" and should refrain from using tests.

The implications of this concern are far reaching. Everyone involved in the testing program must be kept informed of attitudinal or physical changes in tests and the testing program. Constant attention must be paid to upgrading the understanding and skills of all involved. Test results must be evaluated in light of certain key questions. That is, are the results valid? Is the information gathered recent enough so as to be meaningful to the individual? Does the information give an indication of growth within the individual? Is the information complete? Since normative data is continuously subject to change each of these concerns must be constantly evaluated. Each participant in the testing program must be advised of the results. Tests and test interpretation can not become static. They must retain a dynamic quality so that they can be geared toward the best interest of counselees.

Like Goldman (1969; 1972), Hill emphasizes that test users develop ways of helping individuals "understand and retain information from tests and to use this information wisely." He also suggests that tests should only be used when the individual is capable of constructively capitalizing on information which comes to him as a result of being tested. It is clear that test users must not only know how they will use the test results before testing but they must have a strong clinical suspicion of how the individual being tested will receive and utilize the materials interpreted to him.

Finally, Hill (1969) encourages the use of tests for improving individual's status and de-emphasizing their use for determining status; for broadening the base of achievement tests; for sharing openly with persons directly concerned all that tests have revealed to us about their abilities and prospects; and for decreasing the use of tests to impose decisions on others while increasing their use as a basis for better personal decision-making (p. 146).

Pretesting on Desired Objectives (Level B-Number 4-Chart 1)

Once a rationale for testing has been formulated and desired outcomes have been determined students should be individually pretested to ascertain base rates of achievement. Pretesting should occur for all desired outcomes, i.e., academic, social, or personal. Although means of assessment may be different for each of these areas pretesting of performance can indicate whether or not each pupil has attained the desired outcome, thereby enabling counselors to identify pupils who do not need to participate in the planned process. Adequate pretesting provides a reference point for the individual growth of pupils that participate in the program and a means for discovering those individuals that have previously reached desired levels of accomplishment before the program begins. Thus used pretesting can identify strengths and weaknesses for all students and can facilitate the individualization of education.

Intervention Strategies (Level B-Number 5-Chart 1)

Since the planning of programs will be based upon pretesting outcomes pretesting should result in differentiated intervention strategies. Academic, personal, and social programs should be developed to address specific deficiencies noted from pretest results.

Although classroom teachers are the primary agents in the development of academic programs counselors can be consultants to teachers by sharing their expertise in academic assessment. By working with teachers academic programs can be developed which address the academic

deficiencies noted in pretests and posttest assessment techniques can be suggested which are more closely aligned with specified outcomes.

In addition, counselors can be of assistance by developing formative evaluation (Bloom, 1972) procedures which teachers can use to adjust programs to needs of students as needs arise. Evaluation activities of this type are designed to identify weaknesses in programs so that revisions can be made that will remedy the weaknesses and increase the effectiveness of the program. Properly achieved, the end result of formative evaluation is expected to be improved educational programming (Sullivan & O'Hare, 1971).

Personal and social aspects of students' education can be addressed through the development of strategies which utilize guidance personnel as counselors and intervention agents. In these cases when counselors are working with individual students or with significant others, pretesting can facilitate the development of methodology which will best meet student needs. As in the academic arena formative evaluation should be incorporated as an integral part of programming so that changes in programs will continuously occur which maximize student opportunity to achieve desired outcomes.

Posttest Evaluation for Individuals and Groups (Level B-Number 6-Chart 1)

"The second occasion for assessing pupil performance on an intended outcome is after completion of the process selected to promote pupil attainment of the outcome" (Sullivan & O'Hare, 1971, p. 33). Posttesting is needed to determine whether students have achieved desired outcomes. In addition, when used in conjunction with pretest results posttests can reveal areas of student growth along academic, personal, and social continuums and provide information about remaining areas of deficiency. When viewed in this manner posttests can provide evidence as to when previously established programs should cease and when, and in what direction, new programs should be initiated.

Finally, posttests can serve to aid in the process of summative evaluation. Sullivan and O'Hare (1971) suggest that "Summative evaluation refers to the evaluation of a program for the purpose of deriving descriptive statements about the effects of the program" (p. 32). Thus, posttests serve to provide the counselor with information about the impact of particular programs on individual students and on groups of students. When coupled with data on student growth along academic, personal, and social lines this information gives the counselor a better means for comparing programs with previous or concurrent programs and provides a more substantial basis for programs of the future.

Redefinition of Objectives (Level C-Number 7-Chart 1)

Once posttests have been completed and summative evaluation determined interpretation of results in light of student needs must be initiated. Original objectives for individuals and groups must be reviewed. If this review indicates that students have achieved original objectives new objectives must be established which reflect their developing academic, personal, and social needs. New experiences must be provided which will help them reach desired levels of these new objectives.

New Experiences (Level C-Number 8-Chart 1)

Not all students in any group will progress at the same rate. The development of new experiences for students should be differentiated on the basis of whether individual students have or have not reached desired levels in given periods of time.

For those students that have reached desired levels new experiences can be directed toward a new set of objectives. For students that have not reached desired levels new experiences must be developed which will help students achieve the original objectives.

To meet the needs of students in the former category it will be necessary to develop completely new programs. However, for those in the latter group it is frequently sufficient to enrich existing programs; to change the rate at which materials, ideas, or experiences are presented; or to alter the setting of presentation. In the extreme case it may be necessary to develop a completely new approach with totally different experiences. However, the need to do this will be the exception rather than the rule.

New Objectives (Level C-Number 9-Chart 1)

When stated objectives have been reached and the expected outcome is realized it is time to move to a new set of objectives. The process begins anew. The counselor should initiate dialogue with publics, develop measurable objectives, specify those objectives, pretest, employ intervention procedures, posttest, redefine objectives, develop new experiences, and establish new objectives. The process must be continuous. If the process retains its on-going, dynamic quality students will benefit from the process. In addition, counselors will be viewed as active agents in the academic, personal, and social education of all students.

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A HEURISTIC MODEL FOR DEVELOPING PROGRAMS TO EVALUATE COUNSELING AND GUIDANCE WORK IN SCHOOLS

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INTRODUCTION

The literature dealing with school counseling and guidance programs contains a plethora of articles pointing out the need for counselors to become aware of their role in accountability (Arbuckle, 1970; Barnette, 1973; Carey, 1971; Hays, 1972). In these articles it is emphasized that if counseling and guidance programs are to survive the current attacks on funds for educational programs, counselors must be able to present evidence that their programs are useful and effective. Counselors must produce evidence that can be used by their publics to judge the value of their work.

The question of whether or not school counseling and guidance programs should be evaluated is purely academic. These programs are continually being evaluated by administrators, teachers, parents, and students. For example, implicit, if not explicit, decisions are made every time a school budget is prepared. Also, the worth of the program will be judged when funds for counseling and guidance programs are acted upon by school board members. Counselors are being held accountable, either explicitly or implicitly, by their publics.

The real question that counselors should be asking themselves is whether they are willing to let administrators, teachers, parents, and students base value judgments regarding their programs on information obtained in a biased and unsystematic manner. Are counselors going to take a passive role and let administrators judge their programs on the reports of a handful of disgruntled teachers? Are they going to sit back and let teachers and students judge their expertise on information obtained in lunch time discussions? It seems clear that from a purely pragmatic position, counselors must take the initiative and obtain demonstrable evidence upon which appropriate value judgments can be based.

How can counselors obtain evidence that will demonstrate the effectiveness and importance of their work in the school community? What kinds of

information can they collect that will give a "true" picture of the effects of their programs on the various target populations? As Pulvino (1971) and Hays (1972) have pointed out, it is through program evaluation that this information or evidence can be collected. Consequently, it seems that evaluation should be an integral part of all school counseling and guidance programs.

Up to this point, the emphasis has been on evaluation as a source of information that can be used to demonstrate the effectiveness (or ineffectiveness) of counseling and guidance programs. Another important reason for evaluation arises out of a need for program improvement through modification (Lee, 1969). Pulvino (1971) refers to this as process evaluation in contrast to the product evaluation referred to above.

Process evaluation is a means through which counselors can question the methods they are using to achieve the goals of their programs. Process evaluation provides information that will allow counselors to compare particular modes of intervention such as individual and group counseling. It provides information that can be used to eliminate program weaknesses and for developing new and more effective forms of intervention.

In the remainder of this paper it will be assumed that the two arguments that have been presented to demonstrate the need for counselors to evaluate their work are valid. In response to this hypothesized need for evaluation by counselors, the model flow charted in figures 1, 2, and 4 has been developed. The model represents an attempt to develop an aid that can be used by counselors in designing evaluation programs. It is similar in design to models that have been devised for developing counseling and guidance programs (Hosford, 1970; Ryan, 1969), counselor education programs (Ryan, 1969; Thoresen, 1969), and other instructional programs (McManama, 1971; Silvern, 1972; Thompson, 1971).

EVALUATION PROGRAM DEVELOPMENT MODEL

General Description

The Counseling and Guidance Evaluation Program Development Model proposed is made up of eight fundamental steps. The model is a "road map" that illustrates a sequence of steps that will lead to the development, implementation, and improvement of a systematic and comprehensive evaluation program. The sequence of steps as flow charted in figure 1 is such that each step builds on the preceding steps and determines the nature of the steps that follow. For example, the need for evaluation is determined

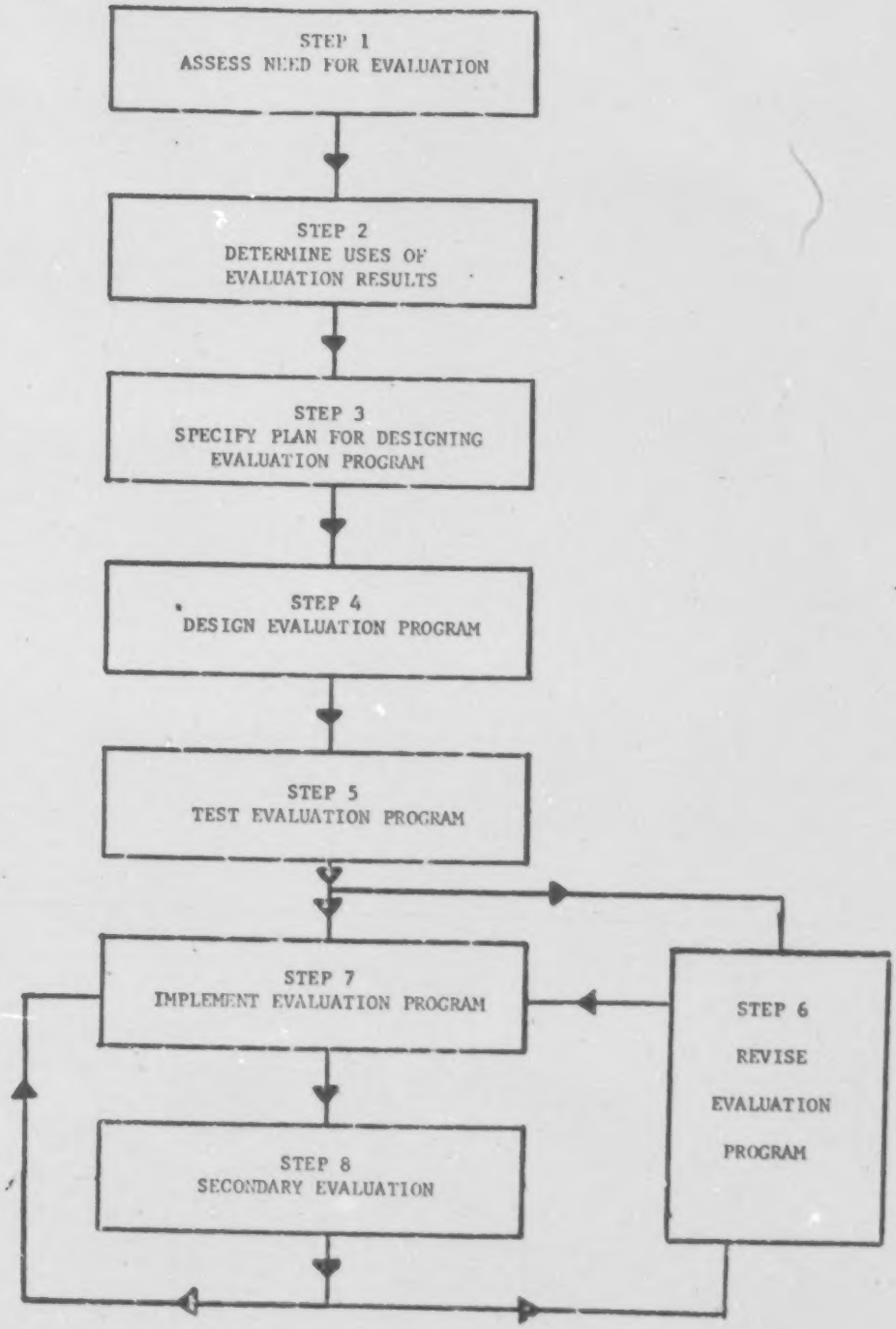

Figure 1. Counseling and Guidance Evaluation Program Development Model.

before the uses of the evaluation information are delineated and before the evaluation program is developed. Similarly, a plan for the development of an evaluation program is specified before the actual evaluation program is developed and before the program is tested, revised, or implemented.

The steps progress in sequence from an assessment of the need for evaluation in step 1 to designing and testing an evaluation program in steps 4 and 5. With the completion of step 5 there are two possible paths. If the results of the evaluation of the test program are all positive, then the existing program will be implemented in step 7. If, however, some aspects of the evaluation program are found to be inadequate, the program needs revision and would be revised in step 6 prior to implementation.

A secondary evaluation follows the implementation of the evaluation program. After the secondary evaluation there are again two possible paths. Depending on the outcome of the secondary evaluation, the next step could be either reimplementation or revision with subsequent reimplementation. An evolutionary cycle has thus been created with respect to the evaluation program. The cycle consists of either three steps - implementation (step 7), evaluation (step 8), and reimplementation (step 7), or four steps - implementation (step 7), evaluation (step 8), revision (step 6), and reimplementation (step 7).

The program evaluation and revision steps should be designed to accomodate changing needs and uses of evaluation. In this way, the evaluation program would be sensitive to changes in the school counseling and guidance program and changes in the larger system of which the program and relevant publics are a part. Therefore, through the evolutionary cycle, the evaluation program can be improved with respect to the original goals and can also be adjusted to accomodate new goals and objectives as the need arises.

Discussion of the Steps and Substeps

In the initial step, step 1, assess need for evaluation, the various groups and individuals that need and want information as to the effectiveness of the counseling and guidance program are identified. Three basic needs for evaluation information exist in most educational systems. They are (1) a need for information which can be used to make decisions concerning the allocation of resources (e.g., needed by administrators, school board members, etc.), (2) a need for information for potential users of program services (e.g., needed by teachers, students, parents, etc.), and (3) a need for information that will lead to the improvement of

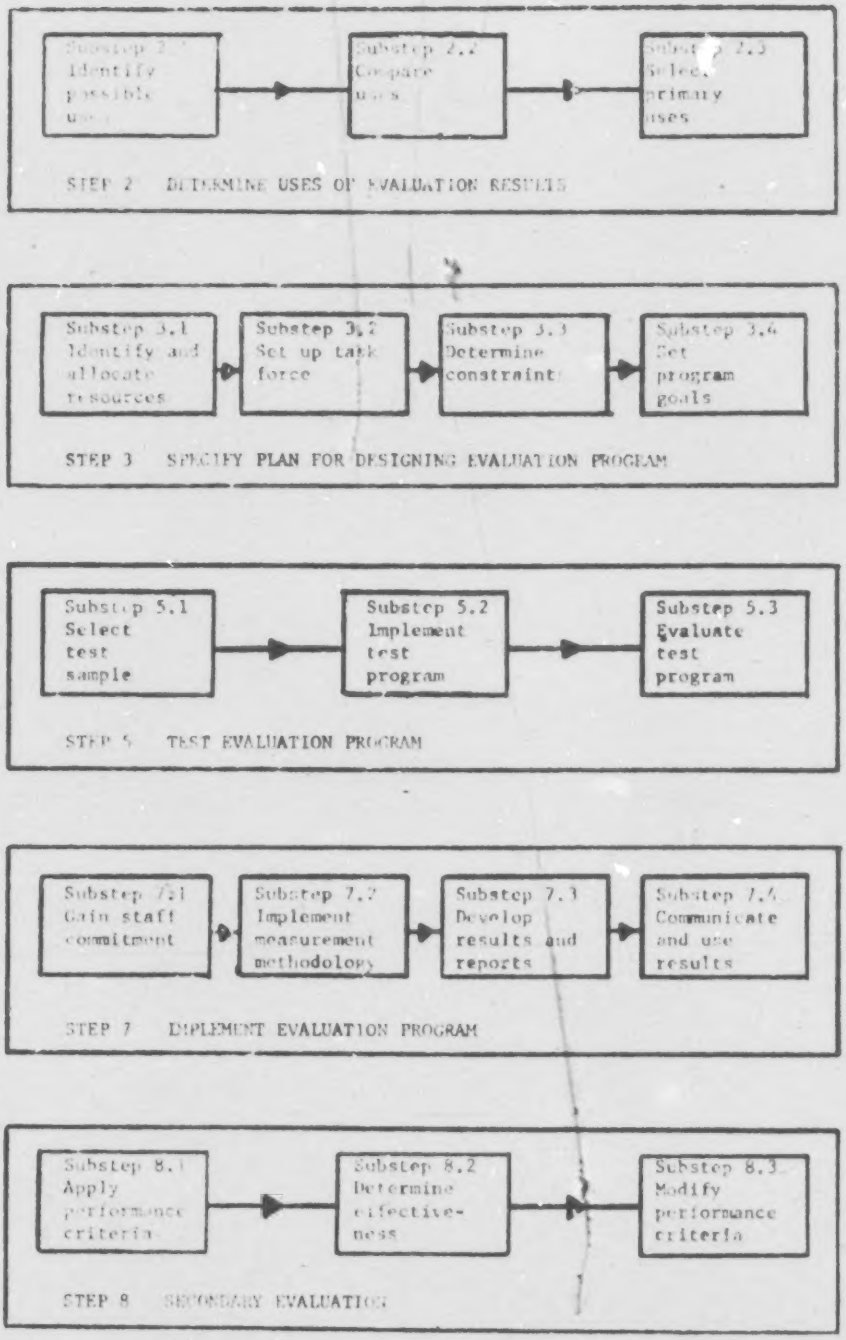

Figure 2. Steps 2, 3, 5, 7, and 8 in detail.

the program (e.g., needed by counselors, etc.). All sources of these needs should be thoroughly investigated if a comprehensive evaluation program is to be realized.

The next step, step 2, determine uses of evaluation results, is composed of three substeps (see figure 2): substep 2.1, identify possible uses; substep 2.2, compare uses; and substep 2.3, select primary uses. In substep 2.1, the consumers identified in step 1 delineate the purposes for which they would like evaluation information. For example, the results could be used by students to select specific programs in which they would like to participate. The results could be used as feedback for students who have already participated in specific programs. The results could be used to demonstrate the counselors expertise to teachers. Or the results could be used by school administrators to allocate funds for counseling and guidance programs.

The next substep, substep 2.2, is to compare the benefits and limitations of trying to serve each of the uses delineated in substep 2.1. Using the information generated in substep 2.2, value judgments can be made in selecting and limiting the primary uses of information that the evaluation program will attempt to serve. That is, in substep 2.3, the ways in which the results will be used are limited to focus on the uses that are determined to be feasible and most important. It is important to determine how the results of evaluation are to be used prior to designing a specific evaluation program so that appropriate measurement methodology can be selected. The evaluation program should generate the information desired by the consumer rather than force the consumer to use the information available.

The goal of step 3, specify plan for designing evaluation program, is to lay out a plan for designing a specific evaluation program (see figure 2). The plan should involve the identification and allocation of resources (substep 3.1), the setting up of a task force (substep 3.2), the determination of constraints (substep 3.3), and the setting of program goals (substep 3.4). Resources needed to develop and implement an evaluation program should be identified and committed to its development. Such resources include necessary funds, persons with needed expertise to act as consultants, and other relevant resource materials.

When setting up the program development task force in substep 3.2, an effort should be made to include representatives of the publics that have a need and are interested in using the information obtained. The initial functions of the task force should be to determine evaluation program constraints (substep 3.3) and to set evaluation program goals (substep 3.4).

In determining the constraints, parameters that may limit the types of methodology that can be used are identified. Such parameters may be the result of ethical consideration, school policy, or other factors.

The final substep in step 3 (substep 3.4) is to specify the goals of the evaluation program. The results of this step would be a list of the types of information that are needed to serve the uses that have been selected in substep 2.3. Once the program goals have been set, the groundwork has been laid for designing a specific evaluation program in step 4.

At this point it will be useful to look at the results that would accrue through the first three developmental steps. The first three steps lead to the identification of: (1) who has need for information; (2) the uses for which information will be collected; (3) factors which constrain how and what information can be obtained; and (4) the types of information to be sought through the evaluation program. These products serve as the specifications to be used by the task force in developing the evaluation program. As an example, possible products of each step and substep in the development of a program to evaluate a drug information program have been listed in figure 3. Figure 3 represents an example of the type of specifications that would be the outcome of the initial developmental steps if the proposed model were used to develop such an evaluation program.

Step 4, design evaluation program, is divided into six major substeps (see figure 4): substep 4.1, make specifications for measurement methodology; substep 4.2, specify measurement methodology; substep 4.3, determine summary statistics needed and report forms; substep 4.4, develop data processing capability; substep 4.5, set program policy; and substep 4.6, specify evaluation program performance criteria. In some cases these substeps are further divided into substeps. The relationship among the six major substeps and their substeps is illustrated in figure 4.

The goals of substep 4.1 are to specify the measurement objectives and describe the target populations. These goals can be accomplished through four substeps (see figure 4): substep 4.1.1, identify program components to be evaluated; substep 4.1.2, analyze program components; substep 4.1.3, set measurement objectives; and substep 4.1.4, specify the nature of the populations. After the counseling and guidance program components to be evaluated (e.g., individual counseling, testing, career development unit, drug prevention unit) have been identified in substep 4.1.1, they are analyzed as a means of describing the process to be implemented and to determine what effects can be expected. Not only should the components be evaluated in terms of the goals for which they are designed, but also in terms of side effects that might result. Using this information the product

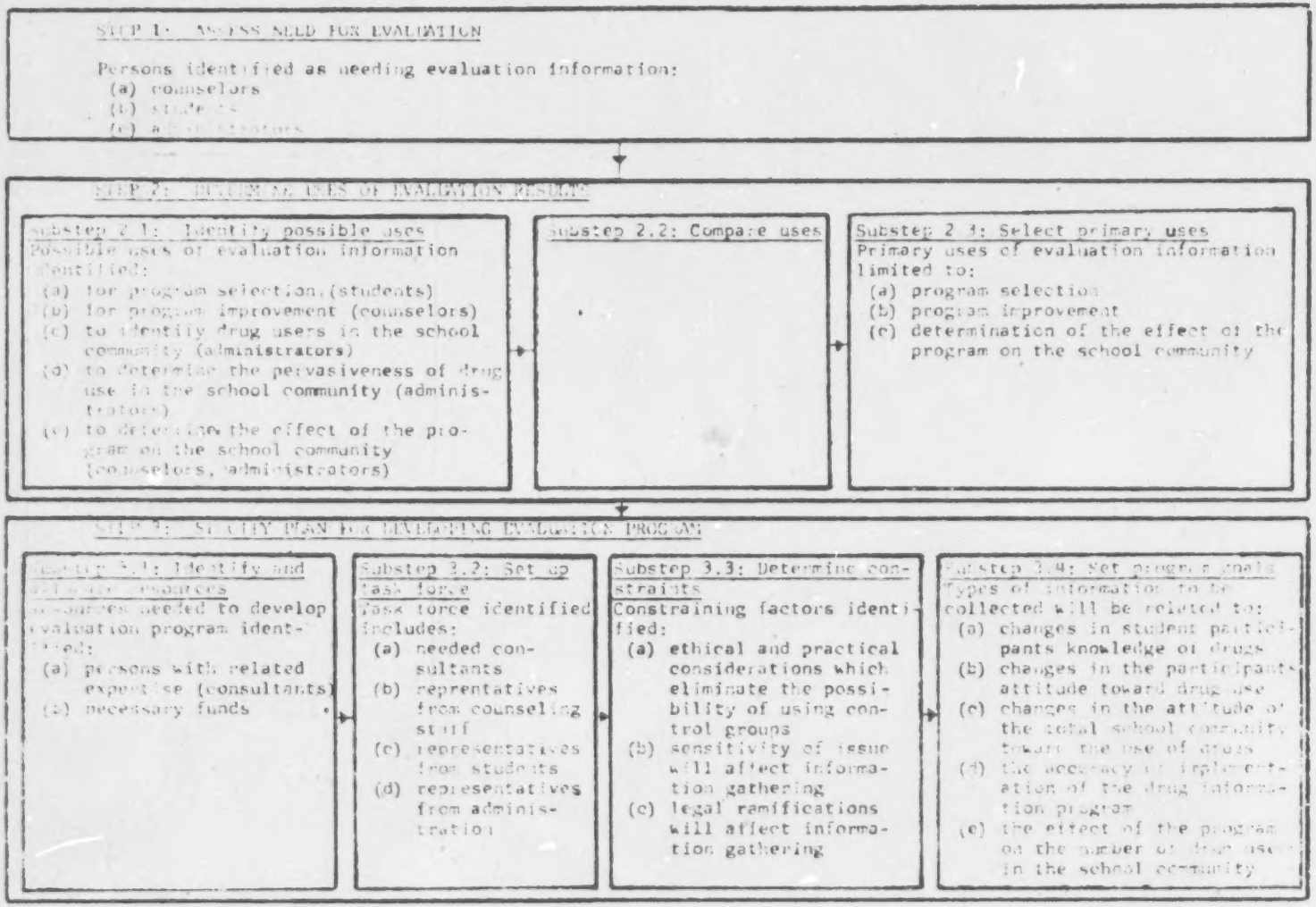
STEP 1: ASSESS NEED FOR EVALUATION
Persons identified as needing evaluation information:
(a) counselors
(b) students
(c) administrators
STEP 2: DETERMINE USES OF EVALUATION RESULTS
Substep 2.1: Identify possible uses
Possible uses of evaluation information identified:
(a) for program selection (students)
(b) for program improvement (counselors)
(c) to identify drug users in the school community (administrators)
(d) to determine the pervasiveness of drug use in the school community (administrators)
(e) to determine the effect of the program on the school community (counselors, administrators)
Substep 2.2: Compare uses
Substep 2.3: Select primary uses
Primary uses of evaluation information limited to:
(a) program selection
(b) program improvement
(c) determination of the effect of the program on the school community
STEP 3: STARTUP PLAN FOR DEVELOPING EVALUATION PROGRAM
Substep 3.1: Identify and allocate resources
Resources needed to develop evaluation program identified:
(a) persons with related expertise (consultants)
(b) necessary funds
Substep 3.2: Set up task force
Task force identified includes:
(a) needed consultants
(b) representatives from counseling staff
(c) representatives from students
(d) representatives from administration
Substep 3.3: Determine constraints
Constraining factors identified:
(a) ethical and practical considerations which eliminate the possibility of using control groups
(b) sensitivity of issue will affect information gathering
(c) legal ramifications will affect information gathering
Substep 3.4: Set program goals
Types of information to be collected will be related to:
(a) changes in student participants knowledge of drugs
(b) changes in the participants attitude toward drug use
(c) changes in the attitude of the total school community toward the use of drugs
(d) the accuracy of implementation of the drug information program
(e) the effect of the program on the number of drug users in the school community

Figure 3. Possible results of the first three steps of the model if used to develop a program to evaluate a drug information program.

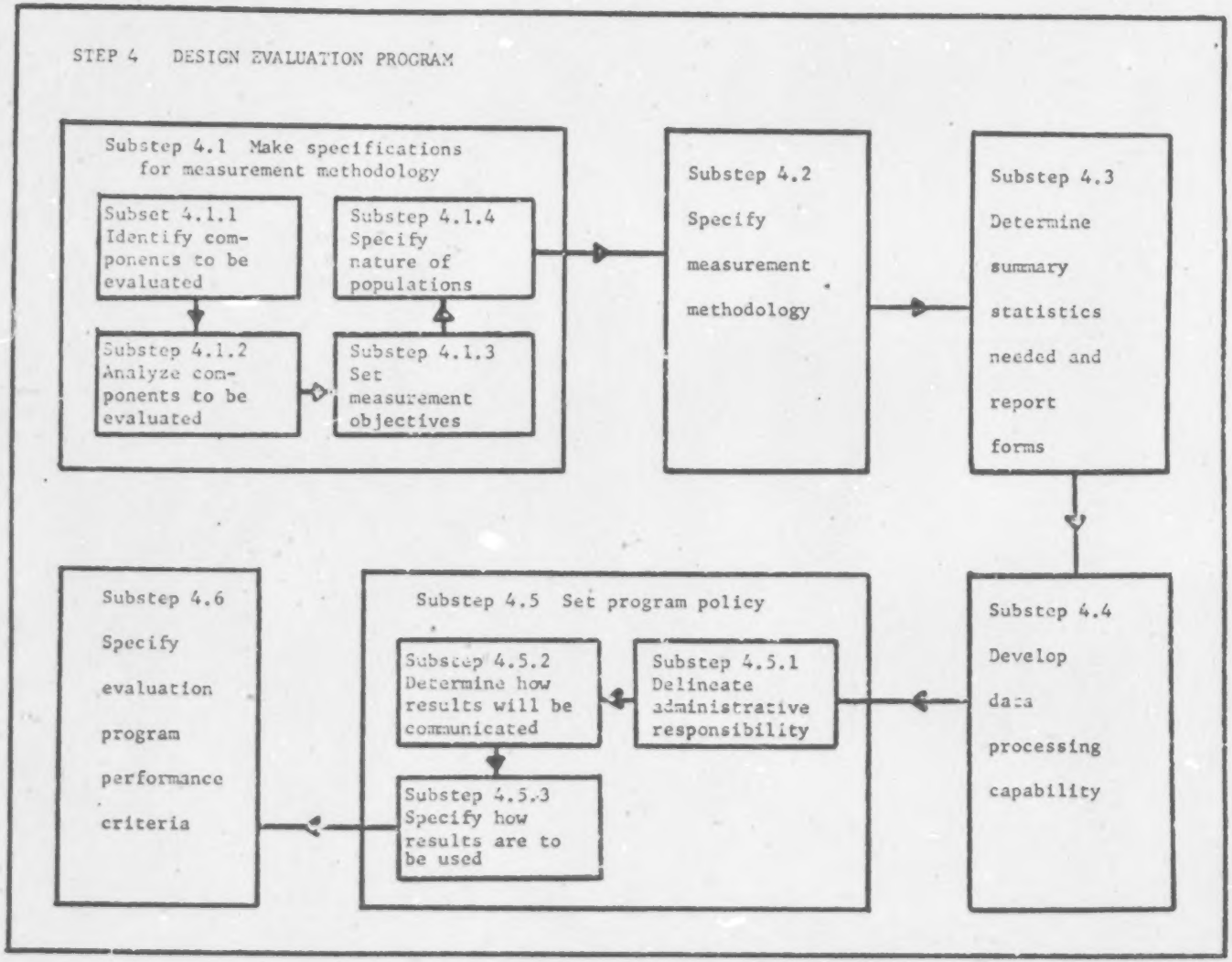
STEP 4 DESIGN EVALUATION PROGRAM
Substep 4.1 Make specifications for measurement methodology
Subset 4.1.1 Identify components to be evaluated
Substep 4.1.2 Analyze components to be evaluated
Substep 4.1.3 Set measurement objectives
Substep 4.1.4 Specify nature of populations
Substep 4.2 Specify measurement methodology
Substep 4.3 Determine summary statistics needed and report forms
Substep 4.4 Develop data processing capability
Substep 4.5 Set program policy
Substep 4.5.1 Delineate administrative responsibility
Substep 4.5.2 Determine how results will be communicated
Substep 4.5.3 Specify how results are to be used
Substep 4.6 Specify evaluation program performance criteria

Figure 4. Details of the fourth developmental step.

(effects of counseling and guidance program components) measurement objectives for the evaluation methodology can be set. In addition, process measurement objectives related to how well the program components were implemented can be specified. The specification of the project and process objectives occurs in substep 4.1.3.

The final substep, substep 4.1.4, is the determination of the characteristics of the target population (target of the component programs and/or the evaluation program) that must be considered when selecting the appropriate measurement methodology. For example, educational level and cultural background should be considered when selecting the methodology.

The second major substep of step 4, substep 4.2, is to design the measurement methodology. It is very important for the measurement methodology to be selected in light of the information obtained in steps 1 through 3 and in the first substep of step 4. The methodology must be selected to meet the needs as reflected by the ways in which the information will be used as specified in substep 2.3, the goals of the evaluation program as specified in substep 3.4, and by the measurement objectives as specified in substep 4.1.2. In addition, the methodology must be such that it meets the requirements laid out in substeps 3.3 and 4.1.4. With these factors in mind, appropriate forms of measurement methodology can be selected or developed.

After the measurement methodology has been determined, the next substep, substep 4.3, is to determine the summary statistics to be compiled and the form reports will take. They will be determined by the type of aggregate of interest (e.g., individual pupil, individual classroom, school wide, etc.) and how the results are to be used. Subsequently, the capability to compile the data and generate the report forms is developed in substep 4.4.

The specification of a policy that will insure the appropriate and efficient use of the measurement methodology and resulting data is the next substep, substep 4.5 (see figure 4). This substep should include the delineation of administrative responsibilities for the implementation of the measurement methodology (substep 4.5.1), the determination of how the results will be communicated (substep 4.5.2), and the specification of how the specific results can be appropriately used by those people that will receive or have access to the summary data (substep 4.5.3).

The final substep in designing the evaluation program is substep 4.6, specify evaluation program performance criteria. The performance criteria specified in this substep are the basis for the secondary evaluation

since they will be used to judge the effectiveness of the evaluation program. In specifying performance criteria, criteria could be selected that would help assess the usefulness of the results for the consumer, criteria could be selected that would be used to assess the appropriateness of the measurement methodology, and/or criteria could be selected to determine how well the measurement methodology was implemented.

Before the program designed in step 4 is implemented, it should be pretested. This is done in step 5, test evaluation program, which is divided into three substeps (see figure 2): substep 5.1, select test sample; substep 5.2, implement test program; substep 5.3, evaluate test program. The various aspects of the evaluation program should be tested on a representative sample population prior to total implementation. This pilot test can then be evaluated using the performance criteria specified in substep 4.6.

If, in the evaluation of the program through the pilot test, all of the performance criteria are met, the evaluation program is ready for implementation in step 7. If, on the other hand, all of the performance criteria are not met, the next step is step 6. In that case the results of the evaluation of the pilot test are the input for the program revision in step 6, revise evaluation program. Within this step the measurement methodology, selected summary statistics and report forms, data processing procedures, and implementation procedures are revised in light of the information obtained through step 5. The revised program is then implemented in step 7.

Step 7, implement evaluation program, involves four basic substeps (see figure 2): substep 7.1, gain staff commitment; 7.2, implement measurement methodology; substep 7.3, develop results and reports; and substep 7.4, communicate and use results. The goal of substep 7.1 is to set the conditions for the implementation of the evaluation program. The cooperation and commitment of all students, teachers, and administrators involved in the program must be assured before the program can be successfully implemented.

The measurement methodology can then be implemented in substep 7.2 and the resulting data can be compiled and put into report form (substep 7.3) as specified in substep 4.3. The results are then ready to be communicated to and used by the persons identified in steps 1 and 2 as needing and wanting the information. The communication and use of the results constitutes substep 7.4.

the total evaluation program is evaluated in step 8, secondary evaluation. The secondary evaluation involves three substeps (see figure 2): substep 8.1, apply performance criteria; substep 8.2, determine effectiveness; and substep 8.3, modify performance criteria. The performance criteria specified in substep 4.6 are applied to the evaluation process as well as to the evaluation results. In this way the program components are judged not only in terms of how well the results meet the needs of the consumers, but also in terms of how well the methodology was implemented.

The program development then goes into the evolutionary cycle previously described. Depending on the outcome of the secondary evaluation, the next step could be either step 6 or step 7. That is, if the secondary evaluation indicates that the program needs revision, step 6 is the appropriate next step and the cycle would be completed by implementing the revised program. On the other hand, if the evaluation indicates that the evaluation program meets the current need for information and has been correctly implemented, the cycle is completed by reimplementing the existing program.

Conclusion

Although the Counseling and Guidance Evaluation Program Developmental Model has been designed as a tool for developing new evaluation programs, it can also be used as a guide for assessing the adequacy of existing evaluation programs. It can be used to determine whether an existing evaluation program is congruent with the information prescribed by the first three steps of the model and if it is not congruent, the user can revise the program in light of the prescribed information. In addition, the model can be used to determine whether the program contains all of the components (policy, methodology, performance criteria, etc.) suggested by the substeps of the fourth developmental step.

When using the evaluation program development model, the user should not consider the development process to be as abstract and inflexible as it is depicted in figures 1, 2, and 4. The model has been discussed in terms of a rigid sequence of steps and substeps in an attempt to describe a complex process in a way that can be readily understood. In "reality" the steps and substeps are more interactive than is indicated by the primarily linear model illustrated in figures 1, 2, and 4. The steps and substeps are not distinct units since each step or substep does not take place during a distinct period of time but rather overlaps with other steps and/or substeps. Therefore, two or more of them may be in progress concurrently

In addition, just as an evaluation program should be tailored to conform to the constraining factors and needs of the system to be evaluated, the evaluation program development model should be adjusted to the user's unique situation. That is, in using the proposed model, the user should keep in mind the fact that it has been designed to be of heuristic value and can be adjusted to meet the unique needs of each individual situation. The model can be adjusted by changing the order of the steps, by including additional steps, and/or by deleting some of the steps included in figures 1, 2, and 4.

There are, however, some steps that are essential and that must precede others if the evaluation program is to accurately meet the needs for information. For example, prior to designing an appropriate evaluation program in step 4, the information obtained in step 1, substep 2.3, substep 3.3, and substep 3.4 must be available. The user is thus cautioned to make sure that essential information is collected prior to the stage of development in which it is needed. After all, that is the primary function of a developmental model of this nature.

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APPENDIX A

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